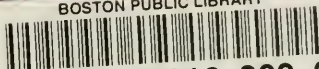


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LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

MASSACHUSETTS.

No. 30.

MARCH, 1904.

CONTAINING:

NATIONAL TRADES ASSOCIATIONS.	PRICES OF FOOD IN CANADA AND
MASSACHUSETTS-BORN LIVING IN	MASSACHUSETTS.
OTHER STATES.	INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.
INDUSTRIAL BETTERMENTS.	LABOR LEGISLATION.
RELIGIOUS CANVASS OF BOSTON.	RECENT LEGAL LABOR DECISIONS.
CURRENT COMMENT.	STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.
STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.	

PREPARED AND EDITED BY THE

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

CHAS. F. PIDGIN, *Chief.*

FRANK H. DROWN, *First Clerk.*

WM. G. GRUNDY, *Second Clerk.*



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NATIONAL TRADES ASSOCIATIONS.

The tendency of contemporaneous practice in the direction of concentration of action through organization, in the adjustment of differences between employer and employee, is exemplified in the numerous comparatively recent movements among establishments in various lines of manufacture, looking to the formation of associations having the power to act in the interest of individual members, with the assurance of the support of all of their constituents.

The underlying sentiment which actuates the members of these organizations is that the union movement among the working classes needs to be met by "powerful, well-disciplined, and broad-minded organizations of employers."*

The literature of most of these organizations is temperate and conservative in discussing the labor situation of to-day; the right of workingmen to organize, and even the desirability of such action, is admitted.

They recognize the evolution of the workman from the position where he labored alongside his employer and could at any time express his dissatisfaction with the order of things, if any were felt, to his position of to-day, when, in the service of corporations and great combinations of production, his chances for obtaining a hearing and securing redress for his grievances are becoming more and more uncertain.†

The workingman's efforts to better his condition by emulating his

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

ROOMS 250-258, STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

CHAS. F. PIDGIN, CHIEF.

ANK H. DROWN, FIRST CLERK.

WM. G. GRUNDY, SECOND CLERK.

With the
Compliments of the Chief.

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The underlying sentiment which actuates the members of these organizations is that the union movement among the working classes needs to be met by "powerful, well-disciplined, and broad-minded organizations of employers."*

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They recognize the evolution of the workman from the position where he labored alongside his employer and could at any time express his dissatisfaction with the order of things, if any were felt, to his position of to-day, when, in the service of corporations and great combinations of production, his chances for obtaining a hearing and securing redress for his grievances are becoming more and more uncertain.†

The workingman's efforts to better his condition by emulating his employer in combining with his fellows for mutual benefit and protection are not condemned. From the employers' side, however, it is claimed that the immediate result of this combination has taught the workman the force of organized action, and that the acquisition of power by a class hitherto totally unused to it, combined in some cases with misguided leadership,‡ may have led to many excesses and abuses, which could only be averted by the organizing of employers.

* The National Metal Trades Association: What It Is, p. 19.

† The Employment Bureau. J. C. Hobart, p. 4.

‡ Ibid., p. 4.

The transition of labor movements from local organization to national combination has been paralleled by the experience of these trades associations: and no greater tribute to the successful organization of the working classes can be paid than by the admission, in an address by one of the best thinkers among employers of labor (Mr. J. C. Hobart, of the Triumph Electric Company, Cincinnati, Ohio), that organized labor is "probably the most perfect organization known." He urges that employers "are poorly equipped at the outset if their organization is inferior to that of the labor element," and he insists that the former "must form strong locals in each trade, unite into national organizations, and affiliate those nationals into the American Federation of Employers,"* precisely along the lines blazed by the labor organizations.

Mr. Frederick P. Bagley, in an address before the National Conference on Industrial Conciliation, under the auspices of the National Civic Federation, at Chicago, December 17 and 18, 1900, said: "The rapacity and cupidity of employers have forced labor to organize to protect the individual. The extreme action of organized labor has made necessary organization of employers . . . in order that the rights of the individual manufacturer may be preserved;"† and he claims that as a result of these movements "there is a mutual regard for each other's rights, born of a respect for the power that each knows lies latent in the other's organization."‡ This is confirmed in the case of one of the first manufacturers' national associations formed, the organization of the men and the organization of employers having modified each other and prevented extremes on either side. The same speaker said that: "Each requires the other to maintain an equilibrium. No one class can be trusted to represent the interests and lawful rights of another . . . because it could not comprehend its wants, desires, and aspirations."

Mr. Bagley also said that: "In industrial adjustments the necessity for organizations of employers is already felt by labor leaders as well as by advanced employers themselves;" and his prediction that "the next great change in the evolution in the relationship of labor to capital will be the organization of employers, not for aggression, but to modify and co-operate with organizations of labor," seems to be in the way of fulfillment, when compared with the official declarations of many of the recently organized manufacturing interests that the object of such associations is "to secure and preserve equitable conditions in the workshops of our members whereby the interests of *both employer and employee* shall be properly protected."

These organizations of employers have grown in number and membership very rapidly during the past two years, and are variously known as Trades' Associations, Citizens' Alliances, Employers' Councils, and Employers' Associations: but whatever they may be called, they simply represent the organization of employers to meet the demands of the labor

* Ibid., p. 14.

† Organization of Employers. Frederick P. Bagley, p. 14.

‡ Ibid., p. 15.

element, as indicated in the foregoing explanations of the aims and nature of these associations.

The first organization of this nature was the Stove Founders' National Defense Association, originated in 1886, with a membership of perhaps 40 out of a possible 225 stove manufacturers, and which has successfully maintained industrial peace through arbitration since its formation. The arbitration committee consists of three employers and three workmen. The membership of this association has increased since its formation, and the defense fund is now so large that the admission of establishments to membership is at a very high cost to themselves, as they are required to pay into the defense or reserve fund in proportion to the amount previously paid in.

The organization of the National Founders' Association in New York January 26, 1898, followed, and this body is strongly active at the present time. The headquarters were subsequently removed to Detroit, Michigan, where they are located at the present time. The membership embraces 495 establishments, and, in addition, 42 branches located away from the main offices. The word "member," as used herein, covers the membership of a firm or corporation composed of one or more persons.

For purposes of administration, the territory covered by this Association is divided into eight districts, each of which has a District Committee, which elects its own chairman and vice-chairman; and these officers from all the districts, together with the president, vice-president, and treasurer of the Association, constitute the Administration Council.

The districts are as follows :

1. The New England States.
2. New York and New Jersey.
3. Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and District of Columbia.
4. Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee.
5. Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, Arizona, Nevada, and California.

6. Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, Washington, and Oregon.
7. Provinces of Ontario and Quebec in the Dominion of Canada.
8. Virginia, West Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas.

On August 21, 1899, the National Metal Trades Association was formed, with headquarters in New York. Later they removed to Cincinnati and opened for business June 9, 1902. An extended notice of this organization is given, because it probably exhibits more generally the latest phases of the new movement among employers than any other association formed for similar purposes. The two organizations previously mentioned served as a guide for the formation of this one, in fact, it was projected by manufacturers who were members of the National Founders' Association, and who wished to extend the influence and methods of the latter to additional departments of their business where were employed artisans other than foundrymen.

The membership of the National Metal Trades Association embraces at the present time over 320 corporations and firms, employing any of the following classes of mechanics: Machinists, blacksmiths, boiler-makers, pattern makers and other metal working craftsmen, not including molders, who are under the jurisdiction of the National Founders' Association.

Local organizations of similar interest in the metal manufacturing world have been formed from time to time, principally under the stimulus of the machinists' strike, beginning May 20, 1901. These locals gradually gained in strength by confederation with new concerns. After the institution of the national organization, the larger establishments generally affiliated with it, while the smaller ones usually joined the local group. At present, however, the tendency to the direct joining of the national organization is becoming more and more pronounced among these smaller unions. Sixteen new members of the national body have joined from Massachusetts since the middle of September, 1903, and the State is represented in the administrative council by Mr. M. H. Barker, of the American Tool and Machine Company of Hyde Park.

The National Metal Trades Association is the wealthiest organization and its defense fund the largest in the world. The membership of the national organization is augmenting rapidly, the records of the annual meeting held April 1, 1903, showing an increase in membership of 52 per cent during the preceding fiscal year, while the subsequent gain to September 1 was 48 per cent. The association is officered by a president, first and second vice-presidents, secretary, treasurer, commissioner, and deputy commissioner, and has in addition a board of councillors, consisting of eight active members and one honorary member, the latter, from his early connection with movements along these lines, being called the father of trades associations.*

The commissioner, under the authority of the councillors, has charge of the business affairs of the Association, and solicitors or traveling agents are employed, whose business it is to explain the system of the Association, encourage the establishment of local employers' unions, and distribute the literature of the Association.

The Association, among its other publications, issues once a month a bulletin containing strike reports and papers bearing upon the labor situation. In the pamphlet containing its constitution and by-laws is a declaration of the principles of the Association, which are as follows:

We, the Members of the National Metal Trades Association, declare the following to be our principles, which shall govern us in our relations with our employees:

1. Since we, as employers, are responsible for the work turned out by our workmen, we must, therefore, have full discretion to designate the men we consider competent to perform the work and to determine the conditions under which that work shall be prosecuted, the question of the competency of the men being determined solely by us. While disavowing any intention to interfere with the proper functions of labor organizations, we will not admit of any interference with the management of our business.

* The National Metal Trades Association: What It Is, pp. 2 and 3.

2. Disapproving absolutely of strikes and lockouts, the members of this Association will not arbitrate any question with men on strike. Neither will this Association countenance a lockout on any arbitrable question unless arbitration has failed.

3. Employment. — No discrimination will be made against any man because of his membership in any society or organization. Every workman who elects to work in a shop will be required to work peaceably and harmoniously with all his fellow-employees.

4. Apprentices, Helpers, and Handymen. — The number of apprentices, helpers, and handymen to be employed will be determined solely by the employer.

5. Methods and Wages. — Employers shall be free to employ their work-people at wages mutually satisfactory. We will not permit employees to place any restriction on the management, methods, or production of our shops, and will require a fair day's work for a fair day's pay.

Employees will be paid by the hourly rate, by premium system, piece work, or contract, as the employers may elect.

6. It is the privilege of the employee to leave our employ whenever he sees fit and it is the privilege of the employer to discharge any workman when he sees fit.

7. The above principles being absolutely essential to the successful conduct of our business, they are not subject to arbitration.

In case of disagreement concerning matters not covered by the foregoing declaration, we advise our members to meet their employees, either individually or collectively, and endeavor to adjust the difficulty on a fair and equitable basis. In case of inability to reach a satisfactory adjustment, we advise that they submit the question to arbitration by a board composed of six persons, three to be chosen by the employer and three to be chosen by the employee or employees. In order to receive the benefits of arbitration, the employee or employees must continue in the service and under the orders of the employer pending a decision.

In case any member refuse to comply with this recommendation he shall be denied the support of this Association unless it shall approve the action of said member.

8. Hours and Wages. — Hours and wages, being governed by local conditions, shall be arranged by local Associations in each district.

In the operation of piece work, premium plan, or contract system now in force or to be extended or established in the future, this Association will not countenance any conditions of wages which are not just, or which will not allow a workman of average efficiency to earn at least a fair wage.

The November (1903) number of the Association's Bulletin contains upon the inside of the back cover a full statement of the position of the Association upon the labor question, as follows :

1. We recognize that the interests of both employer and employee should be properly protected, and that these interests must at all times rest on the fact that employer and employee are equally interested in the results of the work in which they are engaged.

2. We recognize that any restriction of the enterprise of the employer or the energy of the employees, resulting in the depreciation of the quality or quantity of product, is detrimental to the mutual interests of both.

3. We recognize the justice of the recommendation made by the Coal Strike Commission appointed by President Roosevelt, "That no person shall be refused employment, or in any way discriminated against, on account of membership or non-membership in any labor organization : and that there shall be no discrimination against, or interference with, any employee who is not a member of any labor organization by members of such organization."

4. We recognize that there should be no restriction to the opportunities that may be offered to deserving boys to acquire a trade, and that employers and employees should join in their efforts to instruct such apprentices, provided they be employed under written contracts for a specific time of service.

5. We recognize that sympathetic strikes, lockouts, and boycotts are relics of barbarism, because they result in no permanent benefit to either side of the contest, and inflict unjust and unfair injury on the public, who depend on our joint efforts for their comfort and welfare.

6. We recognize that as the realization of mutual benefits, represented in profits and earnings from our joint labors, depends largely on the employer finding a suitable market for the product, he can best determine the methods of work, the selection of employees, and the character of work to be performed by each.

Recognizing these national principles, we agree that, should any other cause of difference arise between us and our workmen, which can not be settled by conference with each other, such matter shall be submitted to a Board of Arbitration composed of an equal number of such representatives as each may select, whose decision shall be binding on both, and pending said arbitration there shall be no strike or lockout.

For convenience of organization, the Association has divided the territory embraced within the limits of the United States and Canada as follows :

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts east of Worcester County. 2. Vermont, Western Massachusetts, and Connecticut. 3. New York City and New Jersey north of and including Trenton. 4. New York State, exclusive of Greater New York. 5. Eastern Pennsylvania, Southern New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware. 6. Erie, Pennsylvania, Western Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. 7. Cincinnati and suburbs (25 miles radius). | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Southern Ohio. 9. Northern Ohio. 10. Michigan. 11. State of Indiana. 12. Chicago and suburbs (25 miles radius). 13. Illinois (exclusive of Chicago), Missouri, and Iowa. 14. Wisconsin. 15. Minnesota. 16. All Southern States. 17. Canada. |
|---|---|

The National Metal Trades Association covers territory as far west as the Missouri River ; but there is a Metal Trades Association on the Pacific Coast not affiliated, embracing practically all machinery manufacturers on that coast.

Among the earliest locals formed was the Cincinnati Metal Trades Association. This Association has continually developed new fields of work, one of the leading features being the establishment, about two years ago, of a free employment bureau for the purpose of recording names and qualifications of workmen connected with the branches of industry represented by the association, furnishing them with situations when practicable, and supplying applications for help of manufacturers belonging to the association. It has been operated very successfully since its inception.

The idea has been taken up in other localities, among them Worcester, Massachusetts, where about nine months ago a Metal Trades Association was formed, with Mr. Charles E. Hildreth as secretary, and a labor bureau established, which was opened for business June 28, 1903. Mr. Herman S. Hastings is the secretary of the bureau, with an office at 44 Front Street.

At the beginning of the year 1903, a body of manufacturers, known as The Boston Metal Trades Association, was organized in Boston, and on January 28 a constitution was adopted. Mr. E. P. Robinson, of 70 Border Street, East Boston, was elected secretary.

Article 2, section 1, of the constitution gives as the objects of this Association (1) to secure a social relation between its members ; (2) the discussion and consideration of, and co-operation on, any questions affecting their interests. Article 3, section 1, provides that the members of this Association shall be persons, firms, or corporations engaged as principals, owning or controlling plants in which are employed pattern makers, machinists, boilermakers, iron shipbuilders, blacksmiths, and members of kindred trades (other than molders) handling iron, steel, brass, or other metals.

The constitution provides for the usual officers and for carrying out the affairs of the Association.

At present there are 65 firms embraced in the membership of The Boston Metal Trades Association, including two foundry establishments located in Connecticut, and one or two in Rhode Island. The completion of the organization of the metal trades in the latter State, however, will probably absorb the industries situated there. The Boston organization embraces subscribers in New England only. It acts in some matters in conjunction with the National Metal Trades Association, but otherwise is not identified with the latter. It is emphasized by subscribers to this organization that it is not a movement in opposition to trades unions, but that it aims to establish "the principle of fair dealing between employers and employees, and to protect both in their individual rights as guaranteed by the laws of the land."

A free Labor Bureau has been established under the patronage of the Boston Association, which acts upon the fundamental principle of the organization as established throughout the country, that "the labor bureaus shall be conducted in a broad and impartial manner, and shall be neutral ground where the workmen may express their complaints and present any difficulties in which they have been involved with employer or other employees, and the employers shall recognize the right of the labor bureau to investigate the complaint;" also that "it is the aim of the labor bureau to assist in providing employers with satisfactory workmen, and the workmen with satisfactory employment."

The Bureau is managed by a committee appointed by the Association for that purpose, and the details are supervised by a paid secretary who carries on the work under their direction. The secretary is Mr. Frank A. Wilson, who has an office at 34 Merchants Row, Boston, where all the business is transacted.

In establishing this Bureau it is provided that the secretary in charge shall be located in a "central office separate from the plant of any member." The management of the Bureau provides that the secretary shall keep a record of workmen employed and unemployed; shall secure, when possible, workmen for members requiring same; shall secure employment, when possible, for workmen applying for positions; shall act as a disinterested intermediary between employer and employee, and endeavor to correct abuses wherever found; that he shall work in harmony with the commissioner of the National Metal Trades Association, and with the chairman of the district of the National Metal Trades Association in which the office is located. He shall assist workmen desiring to move to another part of the country to find employment, and he shall assist dissatisfied workmen to secure satisfactory employment. He shall keep a full record of workmen regarding their character, performance, and ability, but shall not attempt to prevent any workman from securing

employment. It is the duty of the secretary also to furnish, at the request of secretaries of other bureaus, information from the office records. The articles of organization of the Bureau provide that members shall make a statement, to the secretary, of every workman in their employ in the trades included by the association to which they belong, covering name and other desirable information obtainable. It is also provided that members shall make reports to the secretary covering the following: 1. Name, address, and other desirable information of workmen entering employment. 2. Name, address, and other desirable information of workmen leaving employment, and rate of wages paid. These reports are to be sent to the secretary on the day men enter or leave employment, if possible; and if not, they are to be sent on the next business day. 3. Help wanted, with information to enable the secretary to select suitable applicants from his list of unemployed. There shall be no agreement to exclude any workman from employment. The Association may extend the services of the Bureau to members of other associations of employers. The maintenance of this Bureau is provided for by dues fixed in proportion to the number of operatives employed in an establishment, or in proportion to the payrolls of the same, the amount to be determined by the committee; and all subscribers to the Bureau covenant and agree to abide by its rules and regulations as now printed, and to such other rules as may from time to time be made.

The Bureau contemplates issuing a weekly bulletin of the registered unemployed, giving details regarding trades, including a list of situations open and workmen desiring situations; this bulletin will be sent to all subscribers, and will mention exceptional qualifications in particularly efficient men, but will not give names.

In operating the Bureau, blanks are sent to all subscribers, upon which are entered the name, residence, approximate age, nationality, trade specialty, and approximate years of experience of all their employees.

One set of cards, of the card system adopted, gives all the information received from the blanks and in addition furnishes the same information regarding workmen who may apply at the Bureau for registration, and whose records have been investigated. The cards also contain information as to whether the applicant is married or single; the number of years served in apprenticeship, and with whom; the date of certificate of apprenticeship; and, in the case of a regular workman, the total experience at his trade in years. On the back of the card is the name of the firm by whom the workman was last employed; when he was hired and left the concern; the cause therefor; and rate of pay.

The Bureau has not taken up the subject of apprenticeship as yet, but will keep full records later on. The record of rates received by workmen from former employers is not taken for the information of persons who may desire the workman's services, and it is not disclosed.

The Bureau fills out cards with the names, addresses, trade and specialty, age of workmen, date of beginning work, and name of employer, while on the reverse side is the name of the employing firm, the date when the workman left work, and a condensed statement as to whether he was discharged, quit, or was laid off, and the reason therefor. These cards are filed in the office of the secretary, 'under the head of "Shop in which workman is employed," in order that knowledge may be had of the number of employees in each establishment at any time. This list is revised every three months by a personal visit to the different establishments, made by the secretary.

It frequently happens that unemployed men go to the Bureau office to register for employment, in which case a card is made out for each, giving trade and specialty in work done by the mechanic, name, address, years of experience, where last employed, how long employed, date of leaving, reasons therefor, age, conjugal condition, nationality, and date of application. These blanks are numbered consecutively, so that the secretary can tell at a glance the number of applications for work that he has had. The application cards are filed alphabetically and classified by trades; all other cards of this description are filed by name of employment.

Establishments desiring help apply to the secretary, naming the kind of work required, whereupon the secretary fills out a dated card addressed to the employer, giving the name of a supposed suitable person to fill the position required, which is taken by the workman to the establishment. Should he receive employment, the reverse side of the card is filled with date, name, and address, and a statement that the man has been employed, designating also trade and specialty, and giving name and address of employer.

Many instances occur where workmen in search of employment make personal application at the shops, not knowing of the Bureau, and in case they shall be employed, the establishments furnishing them situations fill out cards, giving the name, age, and address of each person receiving employment, stating whether he is married or not, his nationality, trade and specialty, and where he worked last. Each establishment signs and dates this, and mails the card to the secretary of the Bureau, who records the facts in the office.

In the case of workmen who are already registered by the Bureau and who leave the employment of an establishment, a card is made out for each man, giving name and address, and a statement as to whether he was discharged, quit, or laid off, the cause, and the rate of wages paid. The firm's name is signed to this card: it is dated, and sent to the secretary. When this information is received by the latter, the card bearing the man's name as "Employed" is transferred to the "Unemployed."

Should a workman whose services are not needed apply to an establishment for work, the proprietors of the establishment will give him a

card informing him that applicants for employment are registered free at the Boston Labor Bureau, by presenting which the workman may be registered there.

The office methods of the Boston Labor Bureau follow closely those of similar free labor bureaus in other sections of the country, and include the best features of all.

There has also been formed in Springfield another association, known as the Connecticut Valley Metal Trades Association, which will shortly establish a labor bureau similar to those described as existing in other cities cited. The secretary of this organization is Mr. David Hunt, Jr., treasurer of the Bausch Machine Company, who is one of the active promoters.

Tentative measures in the same direction are noted in Providence, Rhode Island. An association has already been formed in Bridgeport, Connecticut; and the movement is manifesting itself in Maine also.

One of the latest organizations formed in the interest of the employer is the American Anti-Boycott Association, which was permanently instituted in June, 1903, by 100 manufacturers and employers of labor located in the United States, for the purpose of resisting boycotts, by proper and legal means, of members and non-union workmen as stated in their prospectus. The management is vested in a general executive committee composed of representatives chosen by various industrial committees, who elect from their own numbers the following officers: A chairman, three vice-chairmen, and a treasurer. A peculiarity of this organization is that its membership is not made public, but on the first of December of each year the Chairman of the General Executive Board submits a list of the active members in each recognized industry, only, to each member engaged in that industry; and the members vote by mail for the names of those whom they wish to serve on this committee. The committee has the power to appoint and pay a secretary and one or more executive agents and other necessary assistants, as well as to engage counsel.

The constitution of this organization prescribes an initial entrance fee, and when the membership of local bodies reaches 100, a monthly assessment of members may be made, not to exceed one-tenth of one per cent of the payroll for each month; but assessments shall not be levied upon any firm, corporation, or person for more than six months in any one year.

The constitution also provides that assessments shall be discontinued when a maximum fund of \$250,000 has been obtained, and may not be resumed until the fund has been reduced to \$100,000.

Literature is issued, furnishing legal definitions of the terms "boycott," "intimidation," and "coercion," as determined by the courts in various parts of the country; also as to the legality of picketing, unlawful persuasion, displaying of banners, etc.; and information is supplied concerning evidence and remedies for unlawful acts. Instruction is also furnished concerning legal doctrines underlying boycotts, unlawful and

sympathetic strikes, strikes to coerce an employer, the right to strike, and strikes under conditions that will imperil life.

The Association likewise issues a circular exhibiting the purposes of the organization, giving reports from trade papers and other sources bearing upon the question in which it is interested.

The latest, and what bids fair to be the largest, movement in the direction of national organization among employers is one lately formed, having in view no less a project than the federation of all combinations of employers, national, state, or local, formed for the same purposes as this one, with one grand National organization known as The Citizens Industrial Association of America.

Prior to the Winter of 1902-3, the number of local employers' associations and citizens' alliances in the United States was comparatively small, but immediately after the great coal strike they began to multiply, and the number had so increased by the Summer of 1903 that in order to prevent as far as possible the duplication of work performed by the several associations, and also to unify their strength for specific ends, a call for a convention of representatives of the various organizations of this nature was issued October 8, 1903, under the authority of a vote taken at an informal meeting of employers held in Chicago on the 29th of the preceding month. Between 250 and 300 delegates assembled in that city on the morning of October 29. The Citizens Industrial Association of America was formed, officers elected, principles declared, and a constitution adopted.

The objects of the organization as stated in its constitution are :

1. To assist, by all lawful and practical means, the properly constituted authorities of the State and Nation in maintaining and defending the supremacy of the law and the rights of the citizen.
2. To assist all the people of America in resisting encroachments upon their constitutional rights.
3. To promote and encourage harmonious relations between employers and their employees upon a basis of equal justice to both.
4. To assist local, state and national associations of manufacturers, employers and employees in their efforts to establish and maintain industrial peace, and to create and direct a public sentiment in opposition to all forms of violence, coercion and intimidation.
5. To foster and encourage, by legitimate means, individual enterprise and freedom in management of industry, under which the people of the United States have made this the most successful and powerful nation of the world.
6. To establish a Bureau of Organization, for the formation of associations favorable to the objects of this organization, and federating them with this Association.
7. To establish a Bureau of Education for the publication and distribution of literature tending to foster the objects of the Association.
8. To create and maintain a fund for such purposes, in harmony with and promotive of the objects of this Association, as shall approve themselves to the Executive Committee thereof.

Indianapolis was chosen as the headquarters, and the date for the first convention of the organization was fixed for February 22 and 23, 1904, at that place.

Thus the actual experiences of both parties to the industrial conflict have shown that the practical method of conducting operations is by

concentration of interests and power in district and national combinations.

The following is a list of the employers national and state organizations already in existence, together with names of local associations located in Massachusetts:

National Associations of Employers and Citizens.

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|---|--|
| <p>Association of American Advertisers.
American Anti-Boycott Association.
American Association of Flint and Lime Glass Manufacturers.
American Boiler Manufacturers' Association.
American Foundrymen's Association.
American Gas Light Association.
American Hardware Manufacturers' Association.
American Newspaper Publishers' Association.
American Paper and Pulp Association.
American Publishers' Association.
Carriage Builders' National Association.
Citizens' Industrial Association of America.
Furniture Association of America.
Hardwood Manufacturers' Association of the United States.
International Association of Municipal Electricians.
Laundrymen's National Association.
Master Horseshoers' National Protective Association.
Merchant Tailors' National Protective Association.
Millers' National Association of the United States.
Morocco Manufacturers' National Association.
National Association of Automobile Manufacturers.
National Arm, Pin and Bracket Association.
National Association of Agricultural Implement and Vehicle Manufacturers.
National Association of Boiler Manufacturers.
National Association of Box and Box Shook Manufacturers of the United States.
National Association of Builders.
National Association of Grain Drills and Broadcast Seeders.
National Association of Manufacturers.
National Association of Manufacturers and Erectors of Steel Structural and Iron Work.</p> | <p>National Association of Marble Dealers.
National Association of Master Bakers.
National Association of Master House Painters and Decorators.
National Association of Master Plumbers.
National Association of Stove Manufacturers.
National Association of Upholsterers and Parlor Frame Manufacturers.
National Association of Wool Manufacturers, Bloomington, Ill.
National Brick Manufacturers' Association of the United States.
National Building Trades Employers' Association.
National Confectioners' Association.
National Coopers' Association.
National Electrical Contractors' Association.
National Founders' Association.
National Glass Vial and Bottle Manufacturers' Association.
National Harness Manufacturers' and Dealers' Association.
National Lye Manufacturers' Association.
National Lumber Manufacturers' Association.
National Machine Tool Builders' Association.
National Metal Trades' Association.
National Plasterers' Association.
National Quarry Owners' Association.
National Saddlery Manufacturers' Association.
National Slack Cooperage Stock Manufacturers' Association.
National Wagon Manufacturers' Association.
National Wholesale Lumber Dealers' Association.
Stove Founders' National Defense Association.
Tight-Stove Manufacturers' Association.
Trunk Manufacturers' Association of the United States.
United States Potters' Association.
United Typothetae of America.</p> |
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District and State Associations of Employers and Citizens.

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|---|--|
| <p>Alabama State Association of Master Plumbers.
Arkansas State Master Plumbers' Association.
California Bankers' Association.
California Miners' Association.
California State Master Plumbers' Association.
Colorado State Master Plumbers' Association.
Connecticut Master Plumbers' Association.
Connecticut State Typothetae.
Electrical Contractors Association of Arkansas.
Electrical Contractors Association of Connecticut.
Electrical Contractors Association of Illinois.
Electrical Contractors Association of Indiana.
Electrical Contractors Association of Maryland.
Electrical Contractors Association of Michigan.
Electrical Contractors Association of Minnesota.
Electrical Contractors Association of Missouri.
Electrical Contractors Association of Ohio.
Electrical Contractors Association of Pennsylvania.
Florida State Master Plumbers' Association.
Illinois Coal Operators' Association.</p> | <p>Illinois Manufacturers' Association.
Illinois Master Plumbers' Association.
Indiana State Master Plumbers' Association.
Iowa State Master Plumbers' Association.
Kansas Federation of Commercial Interests.
Kansas State Plumbers' Association.
Laundrymen's Association of Illinois.
Lumber Dealers' Association of Colorado, New Mexico, and Wyoming.
Manufacturers' Association of the Northwest.
Manufacturers' and Producers' Association of California.
Massachusetts State Association of Master Painters and Decorators.
Massachusetts State Master Plumbers' Association.
Master Painters' and Decorators' Association of Ohio.
Master Printers' Association of Rhode Island.
Michigan Manufacturers' Association, Lansing, Mich.
Michigan State Master Plumbers' Association.</p> |
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District and State Associations of Employers and Citizens — Concluded.

Minnesota State Association of Builders' Exchanges.
 Minnesota State Master Plumbers' Association.
 Missouri State Master Plumbers' Association.
 Nebraska Bankers' Association.
 New England Brewers' Association.
 New England Cotton Manufacturers' Association.
 New England Foundrymen's Association.
 New England Manufacturers', Jewelers', and Silversmiths' Association.
 New England Shoe and Leather Association.
 New Jersey State Master Plumbers' Association.
 New York Foundrymen's Association.
 New York Lumber Trades' Association, 18 Broadway, New York.
 New York Metal Trades' Association.
 New York State Association of Master Painters and Decorators.
 North Carolina Pine Association.
 Northwestern Lumbermen's Association, Minneapolis, Minn.

Northwestern Manufacturers' Association.
 Ohio State Association of Builders' Exchanges, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Pacific Coast Metal Trades' Association (San Francisco).
 Pacific Coast Metal Trades' Association (Seattle).
 Philadelphia Foundrymen's Association.
 Pennsylvania State Association of Master Painters and Decorators.
 Southern Cotton Spinners' Association, Atlanta, Ga.
 Southern Manufacturers' Association.
 Southwestern Founders' Association.
 United Employers of the Building Industry of California.
 United Electrical Contractors' Association of New York State.
 Western Paper-Box Association.
 Western Pennsylvania and New York Association of Builders and Contractors.
 Wisconsin Manufacturers' Association.

Massachusetts Associations of Employers and Citizens.**BOSTON.**

Boston Metal Trades Association.
 Boston Typothetae.
 Home Market Club.
 Master Builders' Association.
 Master Painters' Association.
 Master Plumbers' Association.
 Merchant Tailors' Protective Association.

HOLYOKE.

Builders' Exchange.

LOWELL.

Master Builders' Exchange.

LYNN.

Master Builders' Association.

QUINCY.

Master Builders' and Trades' Exchange.

SPRINGFIELD.

Business Men's Association.
 Builders' Exchange.

WORCESTER.

Employers' Association.
 Electrical Contractors' Association.
 Founders' Association.
 Metal Trades' Association.

MASSACHUSETTS-BORN LIVING IN OTHER STATES.

The apparent absence of the native-born element in the industries of the Commonwealth, as noted in "Race in Industry,"* has led to the inquiry: "What has become of the sons and daughters of Massachusetts?" This question is partially answered from information drawn from the Census publications of the United States which show the number of persons who were born in Massachusetts but are now residing in certain other States of the Union. The following table covers the data for the Census years 1870, 1880, 1890, and 1900. The Census volumes for 1870 and 1880 did not enter upon the details of parentage, but for 1890 and 1900 not only were the persons represented born in Massachusetts but their parents also were native born. The presentation for 1870 and 1880 is for principal cities only, while that for 1890 and 1900 is for places containing a population of 25,000 or more, excepting, of course, those in Massachusetts.

* Part I. of the Report on the Statistics of Labor for 1903.

Persons of Massachusetts Birth Living in Other States.

STATES, TERRITORIES, AND CITIES.	1870	1880	1890	1900
Alabama,	351	339	415	323
Birmingham,	-	-	42	31
Mobile,	125	-	40	60
Montgomery,	-	-	-	22
Other cities and towns,	226	339	333	210
Alaska,	-	-	-	268
Arizona,	116	563	300	311
Arkansas,	217	322	304	270
Little Rock,	-	-	40	53
Other cities and towns,	217	322	264	217
California,	15,213	19,056	12,592	11,884
Los Angeles,	-	-	680	1,204
Oakland,	-	-	945	894
Sacramento,	-	-	229	197
San Francisco,	7,091	8,244	3,396	2,716
Other cities and towns,	8,122	10,812	7,342	6,873
Colorado,	618	3,621	3,733	3,088
Denver,	-	937	1,567	1,301
Pueblo,	-	-	-	149
Other cities and towns,	618	2,684	2,166	1,638
Connecticut,	17,592	22,256	17,517	19,707
Bridgeport,	-	-	1,148	1,275
Hartford,	2,239	2,407	1,939	2,769
New Britain,	-	-	-	415
New Haven,	1,604	2,017	1,620	1,868
Waterbury,	-	-	569	675
Other cities and towns,	13,749	17,832	12,241	12,705
Delaware,	327	256	179	154
Wilmington,	177	163	97	94
Other cities and towns,	150	93	82	60
District of Columbia,	1,204	1,605	1,717	1,591
Florida,	454	829	1,382	1,090
Jacksonville,	-	-	-	128
Other cities and towns,	454	829	1,382	962
Georgia,	615	606	628	609
Atlanta,	-	132	163	167
Augusta,	-	-	39	24
Savannah,	127	-	63	66
Other cities and towns,	488	474	363	352
Hawaii,	-	-	-	198
Honolulu,	-	-	-	140
Other cities and towns,	-	-	-	58
Idaho,	196	251	289	346
Illinois,	22,111	20,413	13,623	11,633
Chicago,	5,991	6,998	5,946	5,910
East St. Louis,	-	-	-	30
Joliet,	-	-	-	61
Peoria,	-	-	184	140
Quincy,	-	-	110	83
Rockford,	-	-	-	160
Springfield,	-	-	-	71
Other cities and towns,	16,120	13,415	7,383	5,178
Indiana,	3,478	3,187	2,044	1,675
Evansville,	-	-	61	38
Fort Wayne,	-	-	82	69
Indianapolis,	437	456	307	287
South Bend,	-	-	-	55
Terre Haute,	-	-	64	37
Other cities and towns,	3,041	2,731	1,530	1,189
Indian Territory,	-	-	-	55
Iowa,	8,915	9,366	5,584	3,812
Cedar Rapids,	-	-	-	95
Council Bluffs,	-	-	-	101
Davenport,	-	-	105	74
Des Moines,	-	-	280	177
Dubuque,	-	-	98	95
Sioux City,	-	-	358	115
Other cities and towns,	8,915	9,366	4,743	3,155
Kansas,	2,887	5,384	3,927	2,459
Kansas City,	-	-	145	86
Topeka,	-	-	214	159
Other cities and towns,	2,887	5,384	3,568	2,214
Kentucky,	779	787	519	407
Covington,	-	-	56	21
Lexington,	-	-	-	18
Louisville,	276	256	182	152
Newport,	-	-	-	13
Other cities and towns,	503	531	281	203
Louisiana,	825	596	382	317
New Orleans,	569	421	255	196
Other cities and towns,	256	175	127	121
Maine,	11,091	10,041	8,353	11,003
Portland,	1,087	-	798	1,321
Other cities and towns,	10,004	10,041	7,555	9,682
Maryland,	1,182	1,251	953	1,046
Baltimore,	760	815	614	621
Other cities and towns,	422	466	339	425

Persons of Massachusetts Birth Living in Other States — Continued.

STATES, TERRITORIES, AND CITIES.	1870	1880	1890	1900
Michigan,	10,803	9,567	6,441	4,654
Bay City,	—	—	38	33
Detroit,	695	936	677	640
Grand Rapids,	—	—	361	292
Jackson,	—	—	—	102
Saginaw,	—	—	157	96
Other cities and towns,	10,108	8,631	5,208	3,491
Minnesota,	5,726	7,218	5,796	4,394
Duluth,	—	—	209	142
Minneapolis,	—	1,108	1,795	1,308
St. Paul,	—	698	979	809
Other cities and towns,	5,726	5,412	2,813	2,135
Mississippi,	263	167	139	114
Missouri,	5,694	4,728	3,450	2,969
Joplin,	—	—	—	49
Kansas City,	544	665	806	616
St. Joseph,	—	—	199	251
St. Louis,	2,542	1,805	1,030	1,019
Other cities and towns,	2,608	2,258	1,415	1,034
Montana,	293	523	780	848
Butte,	—	—	—	105
Other cities and towns,	293	523	780	743
Nebraska,	1,277	3,519	4,587	2,361
Lincoln,	—	—	559	221
Omaha,	—	—	1,458	612
South Omaha,	—	—	—	74
Other cities and towns,	1,277	3,519	2,570	1,454
Nevada,	988	1,033	296	179
New Hampshire,	16,486	20,524	16,692	18,480
Manchester,	—	—	1,155	1,449
Other cities and towns,	16,486	20,524	15,537	17,031
New Jersey,	6,008	6,513	5,231	6,154
Atlantic City,	—	—	—	95
Bayonne,	—	—	—	128
Camden,	—	297	273	219
Elizabeth,	—	—	190	195
Hoboken,	—	—	52	100
Jersey City,	1,143	1,099	619	587
Newark,	759	755	565	749
Passaic,	—	—	—	161
Paterson,	205	358	140	164
Trenton,	—	—	115	114
Other cities and towns,	3,901	4,004	3,277	3,642
New Mexico,	85	236	216	225
New York,	41,062	42,110	27,554	27,515
Albany,	587	842	536	533
Auburn,	—	—	185	155
Binghamton,	—	—	263	194
Brooklyn,	5,677	6,743	5,239	—
Buffalo,	765	950	754	863
Elmira,	—	—	182	159
Long Island City,	—	—	76	—
New York,	5,915	10,589	6,486	14,142
Rochester,	664	789	603	594
Schenectady,	—	—	—	237
Syracuse,	487	469	448	430
Troy,	609	723	331	365
Utica,	326	—	166	192
Yonkers,	—	—	202	209
Other cities and towns,	26,032	21,005	12,083	9,442
North Carolina,	278	314	321	366
North Dakota,	†	†	483	418
Ohio,	13,330	10,802	7,205	5,082
Akron,	—	—	124	120
Canton,	—	—	164	55
Cincinnati,	1,009	904	431	331
Cleveland,	1,089	1,406	1,028	953
Columbus,	283	302	252	221
Dayton,	185	198	158	184
Springfield,	—	—	94	92
Toledo,	343	343	308	329
Youngstown,	—	—	39	36
Other cities and towns,	10,421	7,649	4,607	2,761
Oklahoma,	—	—	82	265
Oregon,	734	1,281	1,372	1,201
Portland,	—	—	455	470
Other cities and towns,	734	1,281	917	731
Pennsylvania,	9,019	9,889	6,162	6,217
Allentown,	99	151	96	127
Altoona,	—	—	18	27
Chester,	—	—	21	16
Easton,	—	—	—	46
Erie,	—	—	—	55
Harrisburg,	—	—	120	94
Johnstown,	—	—	36	42
				9

* Included in the City of New York.

† Dakota, 143 in 1870; 1,290 in 1880.

Persons of Massachusetts Birth Living in Other States — Concluded.

STATES, TERRITORIES, AND CITIES.	1870	1880	1890	1900
Pennsylvania — Con.				
Lancaster,	-	-	18	32
McKeesport,	-	-	-	24
Newcastle,	-	-	-	24
Philadelphia,	3,159	4,293	2,581	2,830
Pittsburg,	246	438	208	274
Reading,	43	47	30	53
Scranton,	117	168	93	114
Wilkesbarre,	-	-	33	60
Williamsport,	-	-	50	47
York,	-	-	-	24
Other cities and towns,	5,355	4,792	2,858	2,319
Rhode Island,	18,523	23,026	15,281	17,343
Pawtucket,	-	-	1,620	1,769
Providence,	6,825	10,427	7,331	8,169
Woonsocket,	-	-	-	941
Other cities and towns,	11,698	12,599	6,330	6,464
South Carolina,	303	332	248	205
Charleston,	105	103	63	43
Other cities and towns,	198	229	185	162
South Dakota,	*	*	1,106	745
Tennessee,	542	494	612	422
Chattanooga,	-	-	67	38
Knoxville,	-	-	-	41
Memphis,	124	-	64	50
Nashville,	-	73	75	42
Other cities and towns,	418	421	406	251
Texas,	592	1,523	1,064	837
Dallas,	-	-	83	66
Fort Worth,	-	-	-	41
Galveston,	-	-	65	67
Houston,	-	-	32	41
San Antonio,	-	-	106	76
Other cities and towns,	592	1,523	778	606
Utah,	492	645	630	392
Salt Lake City,	-	-	333	177
Other cities and towns,	492	645	297	215
Vermont,	9,155	8,230	5,866	6,690
Virginia,	736	855	676	760
Norfolk,	-	-	61	80
Richmond,	94	123	93	86
Other cities and towns,	642	732	522	594
Washington,	396	802	2,441	2,416
Seattle,	-	-	544	830
Spokane,	-	-	-	217
Tacoma,	-	-	418	271
Other cities and towns,	396	802	1,479	1,098
West Virginia,	452	447	343	219
Wheeling,	-	-	38	33
Other cities and towns,	452	447	305	186
Wisconsin,	10,391	8,272	4,567	3,401
La Crosse,	-	-	101	71
Milwaukee,	797	750	503	489
Oshkosh,	-	-	-	90
Racine,	-	-	-	84
Superior,	-	-	-	57
Other cities and towns,	9,594	7,522	3,963	2,610
Wyoming,	178	396	531	446
TOTALS,	241,977	264,205	194,613	187,624

* Dakota, 143 in 1870; 1,290 in 1880.

Since 1880 there has been an apparent diminution of Massachusetts-born persons living in other States and Territories, though that year shows a gain over 1870 of 22,228 persons. The reason for this apparent loss may be explained by the fact that in 1870 and in 1880 the figures include all persons born in Massachusetts of both native and foreign parentage, while those for 1890 and 1900 are for white persons born in Massachusetts of native-born fathers and mothers, excluding altogether persons of foreign parentage. If we include the latter, the figures for 1890 would be 272,041, and for 1900, 296,982. Including persons of foreign parentage it is seen that there has been an increase rather than a decrease. For the purpose of this article, however, the persons of foreign parentage have been excluded.

In 1890, there were 194,613 persons and in 1900 there were 187,624 persons born in Massachusetts of native parentage who had found homes, presumably, outside the borders of the Commonwealth, contributing their efforts to the upbuilding of other localities. Reared perhaps for one or more generations under the influence of their native State, they had gone forth carrying with them the wholesome predominance of Massachusetts vigor and thrift, and lending their aid to the growth and prominence of their adopted State.

In the next table we show the native-white population of native parentage in the States and Territories for 1900, the number of white persons residing therein, born in Massachusetts of native parentage, and the percentages of such persons of the total native-white population of native parentage.

Native-white Persons of Native Parentage: By States and Territories.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number liv- ing in each State or Territory	Number born in Massachu- setts	Percent- ages	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Number liv- ing in each State or Territory	Number born in Massachu- setts	Percent- ages
Alabama,	956,658	323	0.03	Nebraska,	553,524	2,361	0.43
Alaska,	17,494	268	1.53	Nevada,	15,111	179	1.18
Arizona,	44,830	311	0.69	New Hampshire,	242,614	18,480	7.62
Arkansas,	897,668	270	0.03	New Jersey,	825,973	6,154	0.74
California,	644,428	11,884	1.84	New Mexico,	149,029	225	0.15
Colorado,	311,335	3,088	0.99	New York,	2,851,513	27,515	0.96
Connecticut,	372,783	19,707	5.29	North Carolina,	1,250,811	366	0.03
Delaware,	118,029	154	0.13	North Dakota,	65,811	418	0.64
District of Columbia,	134,073	1,591	1.19	Ohio,	2,651,440	5,082	0.19
Florida,	254,032	1,090	0.43	Oklahoma,	313,905	265	0.08
Georgia,	1,144,360	609	0.05	Oregon,	256,125	1,201	0.47
Hawaii,	37,018	198	0.52	Pennsylvania,	3,729,093	6,217	0.17
Idaho,	89,851	346	0.39	Rhode Island,	144,986	17,343	11.96
Illinois,	2,271,765	11,633	0.51	South Carolina,	540,766	205	0.04
Indiana,	1,952,194	1,075	0.09	South Dakota,	136,191	745	0.55
Indian Territory,	287,647	55	0.02	Tennessee,	1,481,636	422	0.03
Iowa,	1,261,068	3,812	0.30	Texas,	1,959,762	847	0.05
Kansas,	1,013,655	2,459	0.24	Utah,	104,026	392	0.38
Kentucky,	1,673,413	407	0.02	Vermont,	225,381	6,690	2.97
Louisiana,	569,962	317	0.06	Virginia,	1,141,213	760	0.07
Maine,	453,082	11,003	2.23	Washington,	265,068	2,416	0.91
Maryland,	680,049	1,046	0.15	West Virginia,	843,981	219	0.03
Michigan,	1,026,714	4,654	0.45	Wisconsin,	585,903	3,401	0.58
Minnesota,	425,780	4,394	1.03	Wyoming,	47,982	446	0.93
Mississippi,	614,067	114	0.02				
Missouri,	2,204,874	2,969	0.13	TOTALS,	39,972,510	187,624	0.47
Montana,	92,937	848	0.91				

The proper method of reading this table is as follows: In 1900, there were in Alaska 17,494 native-born white persons who were children of native-born parents, and of this number, 268, or 1.53 per cent, were persons who were born in Massachusetts. In California, out of a total native-white population of native parentage of 644,428, there were 11,884, or 1.84 per cent, who could claim Massachusetts as their birthplace. Out of every 100 native-white persons of native parentage in the State of Connecticut, five were born in Massachusetts. Other lines may be read in a similar manner. The largest percentage, 11.96, is found against Rhode Island, and the smallest, 0.02, against the Indian Territory and the States of Kentucky and Mississippi. Massachusetts is omitted from this table for obvious reasons. It may, however, be proper

to state that there were 1,032,264 native-white persons of native parentage in the State in 1900, and those born in Massachusetts numbered 748,993, or 72.56 per cent of the total native-white population of native parentage.

The next table shows similar facts for certain of the large cities of the country.

Native-white Persons of Native Parentage: By Cities.

CITIES.	Num- ber living in Each City	Number born in Massachu- setts	Percent- ages	CITIES.	Num- ber living in Each City	Number born in Massachu- setts	Percent- ages
Baltimore, . . .	236,053	621	0.26	Newark, . . .	71,552	749	1.05
Chicago, . . .	354,379	5,910	1.67	New Orleans, . . .	103,186	196	0.19
Cleveland, . . .	87,740	953	1.09	New York, . . .	737,477	14,142	1.92
Denver, . . .	66,810	1,301	1.95	Omaha, . . .	42,752	612	1.43
Des Moines, . . .	38,187	177	0.46	Philadelphia, . . .	521,911	2,830	0.54
Detroit, . . .	61,369	640	1.04	Portland, Ore., . . .	38,170	470	1.23
Indianapolis, . . .	97,772	287	0.29	Providence, . . .	54,423	8,169	15.01
Kansas City, Mo., . . .	94,377	616	0.65	St. Louis, . . .	189,249	1,019	0.54
Los Angeles, . . .	54,060	1,204	2.23	St. Paul, . . .	42,454	809	1.91
Louisville, . . .	88,449	152	0.17	Salt Lake City, . . .	18,119	177	0.98
Milwaukee, . . .	48,598	489	1.01	San Francisco, . . .	83,558	2,716	3.25
Minneapolis, . . .	61,269	1,308	2.13	Seattle, . . .	38,810	830	2.14

The largest percentage is found in the City of Providence, Rhode Island, 15 out of each one hundred persons claiming Massachusetts as their birthplace. It is interesting, also, to note that cities on the Pacific coast contain a fairly good representation of Massachusetts-born persons, San Francisco leading with 3.25 per cent, followed by Los Angeles, Seattle, and Portland, Oregon.

INDUSTRIAL BETTERMENTS.

The S. M. Jones Company of Toledo, Ohio, has gained an enviable reputation among workingmen for its recognition of the manhood of its employees. No other rule or regulation save that contained in the thought expressed by the Golden Rule, paraphrased into "as you do to others, others will do to you," has been considered necessary for the control of the persons employed in the several shops. Mr. Jones, who is the Mayor of Toledo, states in an interview that this is the only rule to work by and to live by, and the longer he lives the better he likes it. In speaking of the men and the control he exercises over them, Mr. Jones said:

"We have no discipline, no bossing in our shop. We have foremen, of course, to instruct and direct, but beyond that we are all on the same footing. If a man does not like to work for us, he is free to go; but, whatever else he may object to, he will have no reason to complain of

tyrannical treatment. We work only eight hours a day, although we compete with establishments that work nine and ten; we pay \$2.10 a day for common labor, and the usual prices for the higher grades in their several lines. Every man has one week's vacation a year, with pay. We have abolished the tin-pail brigade, and all take a good, wholesome dinner together, cooked for us in our own kitchen and served on our own tables in our own dining-room. The men put in ten cents each. The dinner actually costs the company about twenty-two cents a plate. We charge the difference against our profits. It appears on the books as an expense. I am inclined to think it ought to go to the surplus account. . . . A good many of our men are themselves stockholders, owning all the way from one to ten shares. If they do not complain the rest of us ought not to."

One of the nearest approaches to the Golden Rule idea in Massachusetts is to be found in the shoe factory of the Thomas G. Plant Company in Roxbury. About seven years ago, owing to the volume of business, it was necessary to employ all kinds and conditions of help. Since that time, however, the company has gradually made changes in the class of its employees, and in its methods of dealing with them, with the twofold object in view of furnishing employment to the most intelligent and industrious class of American citizens obtainable, and to make their days of toil easy by the introduction of labor-saving devices, and pleasurable by providing means of recreation and entertainment. This, it is thought, has been in a great measure accomplished, and the company now furnishes continuous employment to nearly 2,800 persons for 12 months in the year, the working-day being nine hours.

In carrying forward these measures for the benefit of its employees, the company does not claim to be actuated by any philanthropic motive nor by a feeling of charity. It is considered a wise business proposition to assist the employees in maintaining their physical health, believing that those who enjoy good health are better fitted to perform good and faithful work.

The company has established lunch and reading rooms, together with a gymnasium, and recreation, music, and dance halls, devoting a total floor area of 25,000 square feet to this purpose. The lunch room has been in operation about seven months and is well patronized. The aim has been to supply clean and wholesome food at the actual cost of preparation. Since its establishment, however, December was the first month in which the room has paid expenses, but even at a loss it is considered a good investment.

The gymnasium has a floor space of 42 by 72 feet, and is fitted with the latest and best apparatus and appliances. More than one-half of the employees have joined the class in athletics, which is free, save the gymnasium suit, supplied by the company to the members at cost. Male and female instructors are provided, and no fees are permitted under any

circumstances. Connected with the gymnasium are 60 bath rooms, each with a separate dressing room, and there are 60 other dressing rooms. Two drying rooms, with a capacity for drying 1,400 suits, are also provided.

The library and reading room, under the charge of a competent attendant, is 20 by 32 feet. It is open at all reasonable hours and is a branch of the Boston Public Library. The music and dance hall is 31 by 52 feet, while the recreation hall for women is 20 by 25 feet, and contains a piano and ping-pong tables, and has several toilet rooms attached. Four pool tables, one billiard table, and four bowling alleys are provided for the men in a room 60 by 120 feet, and the only expense in connection therewith is the small sum required to pay the boy who sets up the pins on the alleys. The gymnasium is opened at six o'clock each evening, and has four classes, one hour allowed to each class. The baths, reading rooms, and all other rooms for recreation are open from six to 10 o'clock every evening, Sunday excepted.

Another feature adopted by the company is a system of profit sharing. The employees are marked according to the quality of the work performed, their personal cleanliness, neatness in dress, and promptness in attendance to their duties. The first year of the trial of this plan does not expire until May 1, 1904, so that the results cannot be announced until then. But each employee receives consideration in proportion as he is frugal, industrious, cleanly, and constant at work, and in the final division of the profits, in promotions, and in the matter of steady employment preference is given to the most deserving and to those who are members of the sick and benefit fund. It is optional with the employee whether or not he becomes a member of this department. All those over 20 years of age who are members are required to pay dues to the amount of 10 cents a week and in case of sickness they receive a sum of \$7 a week for seven weeks, but in no case is the benefit payable until after at least one week of sickness. In case of death, the sum of \$100 is paid to the heir of the decedent. All those joining this fund under the age of 20 years pay as dues the sum of five cents a week, and their benefits are one-half the amounts paid to those over that age. A physician is retained by the company, and he visits the factory regularly, and as often as the company thinks his services may be required. Two beds are maintained at the Emergency Hospital, and all cases needing surgical treatment are sent there without cost to the patient. Every convenience for the comfort of those who are taken sick at the factory is provided, and a trained nurse is employed and stationed in the building to render first aid to those requiring it.

The company also tries to encourage a spirit of thrift among the workmen. It guarantees to all who deposit 10 per cent of their earnings in the savings bank, that, in addition to the interest allowed by the bank on deposits, the company will pay an equal amount, so that the interest will range from six to 10 per cent each year.

The company believes that it has solved the labor problem and considers strikes and lockouts as things of the past. A sensible workman knows when he is "well off" and prefers not to strike, especially as his improved condition brings him contentment and peace. The employer, who is making money, also desires to keep matters running smoothly, and with this object in view the Thomas G. Plant Company has established not only business but fraternal relations with its employees, and secured industrial peace, without any appearance of charity or paternalism.

A PARTIAL RELIGIOUS CANVASS OF BOSTON.

On November 12, 1903, an attempt to ascertain the church preferences of the people of Boston was undertaken by the Religious Census Committee of the Boston District of the Massachusetts Sunday School Association. The canvass was completed and the final cards turned over to this Department for tabulation on February 29, 1904.

The result of this canvass is given in the tables which follow. In the first table is shown for the wards canvassed, the estimated population for 1903, the aggregate number of persons reporting their church preferences, and the percentage of those reporting of the estimated population.

Number of Persons Reporting Church Preference.

WARDS.	Estimated Pop- ulation 1903	RELIGIOUS CANVASS		WARDS.	Estimated Pop- ulation 1903	RELIGIOUS CANVASS	
		Number Reporting Church Preference	Percent- ages of Popu- lation			Number Reporting Church Preference	Percent- ages of Popu- lation
Ward 1,	24,542	16,323	66.49	Ward 17,	26,900	14,464	53.77
Ward 2,	24,668	11,323	45.90	Ward 19,	29,192	13,359	45.76
Ward 6,	32,871	838	2.55	Ward 20,	34,982	32,385	92.58
Ward 7,	15,923	6,022	37.82	Ward 21,	25,693	20,121	78.31
Ward 8,	31,001	6,081	19.62	Ward 22,	27,563	17,987	65.26
Ward 9,	26,417	422	1.60	Ward 23,	25,392	20,218	79.62
Ward 10,	23,824	5,977	25.09	Ward 24,	29,192	18,889	64.71
Ward 11,	20,748	16,379	78.94	Ward 25,	20,748	11,605	55.93
Ward 12,	25,392	1,727	6.80				
Ward 14,	23,040	10,906	47.34	TOTALS,	489,626	241,651	49.35
Ward 16,	21,532	16,625	77.21				

The number of persons reporting was 241,651, or 49.35 per cent of the population of the wards canvassed, and 40.07 per cent of the entire city. In Ward 6, only a partial canvass was made of Precincts 5, 6, and 7; in Ward 8, Precincts 1 and 6 were not canvassed; in Ward 9, only Precincts 1 and 2 were partially covered; in Ward 10, Precinct 2 was not canvassed; in Ward 12, a superficial canvass of Precincts 4 and 5 only; in Ward 16, all the Precincts except Precinct 1 were covered; in Ward 19, Precinct 2 was not touched; in Ward 22, no canvass was made of Precinct 3; in Ward 24, Precinct 7 was not canvassed, and

only eight persons reported in Precinct 9; in Ward 25, Precinct 7 was not canvassed, and only 17 persons reported from Precinct 5; while Wards 3, 4, 5, 13, 15, and 18 were not covered owing to the fact that no one volunteered for the work.

The most thoroughly canvassed section appears to be Ward 20, in which 92.58 per cent of the population was reported upon as to church preference. The Wards next in order, on the basis of percentages, were 23, 11, 21, 16, 1, 22, 24, 25, 17, 14, 2, 19, 7, 10, 8, 12, 6, and 9; in the last named only 1.60 per cent of the population was covered.

The second table shows by wards and church preferences the number of males and females and those whose sex was not stated, followed by a recapitulation which shows preferences in detail for all the persons reported, by sex and age periods.

Church Preferences: By Wards.

WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals	WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals
Ward 1.	7,734	7,924	665	16,323	Ward 7 — Con.				
Baptist,	509	597	3	1,109	Methodist,	63	114	1	178
Catholic (Roman), . .	3,809	3,893	141	7,843	Presbyterian,	27	48	-	75
Congregationalist, . .	447	470	2	919	Unitarian,	22	36	-	58
Episcopal (Protestant),	635	616	3	1,254	Universalist,	4	11	-	15
Jewish,	345	363	8	716	Other denominations, .	91	94	21	206
Lutheran,	119	104	1	224	No preference,	78	52	1	131
Methodist,	962	993	11	1,966	Refused,	24	7	137	168
Presbyterian,	305	307	4	616	Not given,	51	17	641	709
Unitarian,	161	218	-	379					
Universalist,	123	161	1	285	Ward 8.	2,962	2,735	384	6,081
Other denominations, .	58	67	45	170	Baptist,	64	79	-	143
No preference,	232	121	-	353	Catholic (Roman), . .	764	670	53	1,487
Refused,	9	5	46	60	Congregationalist, . .	22	42	-	64
Not given,	20	9	400	429	Episcopal (Protestant),	70	92	-	162
Ward 2.	5,565	5,400	358	11,323	Jewish,	1,823	1,662	99	3,584
Baptist,	120	137	4	261	Lutheran,	1	2	-	3
Catholic (Roman), . .	3,802	3,740	164	7,706	Methodist,	47	66	-	113
Congregationalist, . .	72	92	-	164	Presbyterian,	1	9	-	10
Episcopal (Protestant),	356	326	-	682	Unitarian,	25	37	-	62
Jewish,	534	526	12	1,072	Universalist,	11	13	-	24
Lutheran,	92	96	-	188	Other denominations, .	34	12	3	49
Methodist,	171	199	1	371	No preference,	53	24	-	77
Presbyterian,	62	60	8	130	Refused,	9	3	26	38
Unitarian,	27	29	-	56	Not given,	38	24	203	265
Universalist,	4	5	-	9					
Other denominations, .	86	71	-	157	Ward 9.	223	187	12	422
No preference,	105	51	1	157	Baptist,	7	7	-	14
Refused,	11	9	26	46	Catholic (Roman), . .	64	71	-	135
Not given,	123	59	142	324	Congregationalist, . .	1	4	-	5
Ward 6.	501	337	-	838	Episcopal (Protestant),	70	31	-	101
Baptist,	29	10	-	39	Jewish,	72	65	1	138
Catholic (Roman), . .	337	263	-	600	Lutheran,	1	1	-	2
Congregationalist, . .	22	5	-	27	Presbyterian,	1	-	-	1
Episcopal (Protestant),	12	10	-	22	Universalist,	1	4	-	5
Jewish,	13	11	-	24	Other denominations, .	2	-	-	2
Lutheran,	7	1	-	8	No preference,	2	3	-	5
Methodist,	19	4	-	23	Refused,	-	-	2	2
Presbyterian,	2	20	-	22	Not given,	2	1	9	12
Unitarian,	12	-	-	12					
Universalist,	7	1	-	8	Ward 10.	2,239	3,109	629	5,977
Other denominations, .	13	4	-	17	Baptist,	372	556	-	928
No preference,	12	3	-	15	Catholic (Roman), . .	693	914	7	1,614
Refused,	8	4	-	12	Congregationalist, . .	202	348	-	550
Not given,	8	1	-	9	Episcopal (Protestant),	169	298	-	467
Ward 7.	2,510	2,658	854	6,022	Jewish,	74	75	1	150
Baptist,	125	183	10	318	Lutheran,	28	34	-	62
Catholic (Roman), . .	1,563	1,572	41	3,176	Methodist,	198	263	-	461
Congregationalist, . .	73	117	1	191	Presbyterian,	61	131	-	192
Episcopal (Protestant),	135	167	-	302	Unitarian,	53	113	-	166
Jewish,	246	226	1	473	Universalist,	40	84	-	124
Lutheran,	8	14	-	22	Other denominations, .	57	50	-	107
					No preference,	232	204	-	436
					Refused,	16	16	222	254
					Not given,	44	23	399	466

Church Preferences: By Wards — Continued.

WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals	WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals
Ward 11.	5,230	9,660	1,489	16,379	Ward 19 — Con.				
Baptist,	539	807	-	1,346	Jewish,	128	126	-	254
Catholic (Roman),	1,199	3,627	33	4,859	Lutheran,	324	3,222	6	652
Congregationalist,	386	657	2	1,045	Methodist,	81	123	-	204
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	1,075	1,650	9	2,734	Presbyterian,	27	52	-	79
Jewish,	356	270	-	626	Unitarian,	35	49	-	84
Lutheran,	33	194	1	228	Universalist,	14	29	-	43
Methodist,	297	466	7	770	Other denominations, . .	68	65	16	149
Presbyterian,	39	324	-	363	No preference,	152	228	-	380
Unitarian,	505	810	20	1,335	Refused,	8	9	91	108
Universalist,	62	74	-	136	Not given,	6	5	287	298
Other denominations, . . .	95	205	74	374					
No preference,	403	317	4	724	Ward 20.	14,490	17,147	748	32,385
Refused,	37	40	277	354	Baptist,	1,446	1,669	5	3,120
Not given,	204	219	1,062	1,485	Catholic (Roman),	5,883	7,056	19	12,958
Ward 12.	659	1,068	-	1,727	Congregationalist,	1,810	2,193	4	4,007
Baptist,	66	129	-	195	Episcopal (Protestant), . .	1,097	1,457	2	2,556
Catholic (Roman),	116	217	-	333	Jewish,	607	611	26	1,244
Congregationalist,	87	131	-	218	Lutheran,	175	212	1	388
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	62	101	-	163	Methodist,	867	1,112	-	1,979
Jewish,	18	8	-	26	Presbyterian,	271	309	-	580
Lutheran,	10	12	-	22	Unitarian,	639	838	1	1,478
Methodist,	54	61	-	115	Universalist,	432	558	-	990
Presbyterian,	22	54	-	76	Other denominations, . .	277	373	15	665
Unitarian,	28	71	-	99	No preference,	766	575	-	1,341
Universalist,	18	36	-	54	Refused,	48	52	156	256
Other denominations, . . .	15	35	-	48	Not given,	172	132	519	823
No preference,	99	94	-	193					
Refused,	29	73	-	102	Ward 21.	8,319	10,867	935	20,121
Not given,	35	48	-	83	Baptist,	1,098	1,396	4	2,498
Ward 14.	5,089	5,165	652	10,906	Catholic (Roman),	2,957	4,098	47	7,102
Baptist,	386	394	9	789	Congregationalist,	844	1,100	1	1,945
Catholic (Roman),	3,249	3,376	90	6,715	Episcopal (Protestant), . .	578	803	2	1,378
Congregationalist,	268	264	2	534	Jewish,	603	645	-	1,248
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	392	377	7	776	Lutheran,	98	127	-	220
Jewish,	54	48	-	102	Methodist,	372	505	1	878
Lutheran,	96	93	3	192	Presbyterian,	216	312	2	530
Methodist,	247	268	4	519	Unitarian,	358	559	4	921
Presbyterian,	89	72	-	161	Universalist,	314	441	1	756
Unitarian,	83	89	5	177	Other denominations, . .	297	398	27	722
Universalist,	64	63	-	127	No preference,	506	413	-	919
Other denominations, . . .	52	61	3	116	Refused,	22	28	176	226
No preference,	108	57	-	160	Not given,	66	42	670	778
Refused,	6	3	83	92					
Not given,	-	-	446	446	Ward 22.	7,747	9,111	1,129	17,987
Ward 16.	7,315	8,489	821	16,625	Baptist,	698	870	-	1,568
Baptist,	546	670	18	1,234	Catholic (Roman),	3,133	3,762	52	6,947
Catholic (Roman),	4,125	4,864	228	9,217	Congregationalist,	878	1,079	23	1,980
Congregationalist,	441	605	14	1,060	Episcopal (Protestant), . .	601	761	13	1,375
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	452	529	6	987	Jewish,	185	185	10	380
Jewish,	326	300	7	633	Lutheran,	491	604	5	1,100
Lutheran,	99	111	-	210	Methodist,	522	618	7	1,147
Methodist,	310	395	6	711	Presbyterian,	89	118	-	207
Presbyterian,	143	176	-	319	Unitarian,	287	363	1	651
Unitarian,	238	296	4	538	Universalist,	119	173	-	292
Universalist,	152	167	5	324	Other denominations, . .	185	191	22	398
Other denominations, . . .	112	109	17	238	No preference,	546	373	1	920
No preference,	356	242	3	601	Refused,	9	7	213	229
Refused,	13	21	130	164	Not given,	4	7	782	793
Not given,	2	4	383	389					
Ward 17.	6,559	7,209	696	14,464	Ward 23.	9,288	10,547	383	20,218
Baptist,	628	683	12	1,323	Baptist,	855	1,043	-	1,898
Catholic (Roman),	4,347	4,719	54	9,120	Catholic (Roman),	3,799	4,260	6	8,065
Congregationalist,	319	394	-	713	Congregationalist,	1,164	1,409	-	2,573
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	316	414	2	732	Episcopal (Protestant), . .	701	845	1	1,547
Jewish,	177	158	3	338	Jewish,	64	67	2	133
Lutheran,	62	47	5	114	Lutheran,	540	572	1	1,113
Methodist,	179	224	-	403	Methodist,	702	837	1	1,540
Presbyterian,	68	83	1	152	Presbyterian,	101	129	-	230
Unitarian,	62	82	3	147	Unitarian,	593	723	4	1,320
Universalist,	85	129	-	214	Universalist,	92	114	-	206
Other denominations, . . .	114	115	6	235	Other denominations, . .	92	145	2	239
No preference,	187	149	-	336	No preference,	499	341	14	854
Refused,	3	4	108	115	Refused,	14	17	84	115
Not given,	12	8	502	522	Not given,	72	45	268	385
Ward 19.	5,811	7,091	457	13,359					
Baptist,	254	278	-	532	Ward 24.	8,760	9,597	532	18,889
Catholic (Roman),	4,208	5,214	51	9,473	Baptist,	1,125	1,283	1	2,409
Congregationalist,	311	374	-	685	Catholic (Roman),	3,561	3,889	27	7,477
Episcopal (Protestant), . .	195	217	6	418	Congregationalist,	831	952	4	1,787
					Episcopal (Protestant), . .	653	763	-	1,416
					Jewish,	105	86	-	191
					Lutheran,	159	160	5	324
					Methodist,	824	975	2	1,801
					Presbyterian,	99	141	-	240

Church Preferences: By Wards — Concluded.

WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals	WARDS AND CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Males	Fe- males	Sex Not Given	Totals
Ward 24 — Con.					Ward 25 — Con.				
Unitarian,	534	636	-	1,170	Episcopal (Protestant),	404	492	-	896
Universalist,	191	217	-	408	Jewish,	25	42	-	67
Other denominations,	105	140	16	261	Lutheran,	86	91	-	177
No preference,	529	316	-	845	Methodist,	396	435	-	834
Refused,	9	20	102	131	Presbyterian,	52	73	-	125
Not given,	35	19	375	429	Unitarian,	237	267	-	504
Ward 25.					Universalist,	41	57	-	98
Baptist,	5,396	5,976	233	11,605	Other denominations,	94	85	12	191
Catholic (Roman),	684	709	-	1,393	No preference,	307	242	-	549
Catholic (Roman),	2,162	2,408	3	4,573	Refused,	40	35	7	85
Congregationalist,	839	1,013	-	1,852	Not given,	29	21	211	261

Recapitulation.

Baptist,	9,551	11,500	66	21,117	Unitarian,	3,899	5,216	42	9,157
Catholic (Roman),	49,771	58,613	1,016	109,400	Universalist,	1,774	2,337	7	4,118
Congregationalist,	9,017	11,249	53	20,319	Other denominations,	1,847	2,218	279	4,344
Episcopal (Protestant),	7,968	9,949	51	17,968	No preference,	5,167	3,805	24	8,996
Jewish,	5,755	5,474	170	11,399	Refused,	315	356	1,886	2,557
Lutheran,	2,424	2,797	28	5,249	Not given,	923	684	7,299	8,906
Methodist,	6,311	7,661	41	14,013					
Presbyterian,	1,675	2,418	15	4,108	TOTALS,	106,397	124,277	10,977	241,651

Recapitulation. Church Preferences: By Sex and Age.

CHURCH PREFERENCES.	MALES		FEMALES		Sex Not Stated	Totals
	Under 18 Years	Over 18 Years	Under 18 Years	Over 18 Years		
Advanced Thought,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Advent Christian,	4	7	6	9	-	26
Adventist,	6	45	10	51	-	112
Adventist (2nd Day),	11	24	15	40	-	90
Adventist (7th Day),	-	2	-	-	-	6
Agnostic,	1	8	-	3	1	13
Atheist,	3	21	7	5	2	38
Baptist,	2,766	6,571	2,798	8,424	66	20,625
Baptist (Free Will),	50	133	59	189	-	431
Baptist (7th Day),	-	-	-	1	-	1
Baptist (12th Day),	14	17	9	20	-	60
Bible Christian,	-	-	-	-	3	3
Bible Research,	-	1	-	-	-	1
Bible Truth,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Brahmo Somaj,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Brethren,	4	11	-	4	4	23
Brethren (Plymouth),	6	-	-	-	2	8
Brethren (United),	-	-	-	1	-	1
Buddhist,	-	2	-	-	-	2
Catholic (Roman),	19,317	30,454	19,474	39,139	1,016	109,400
Christadelphian,	4	10	7	13	-	39
Christian,	31	52	30	74	-	187
Christian Catholic (Dowie),	-	1	-	3	1	5
Christian Followers of Christ,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Christian Scientist,	73	286	91	469	12	931
Church of God,	-	1	-	-	-	1
Church of God and Saints of Christ,	1	1	-	1	-	3
Church of the Living God,	-	-	-	3	-	3
Church of the Truth,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Congregationalist,	2,926	6,091	2,957	8,292	53	20,319
Donalidites,	1	1	-	1	-	3
Episcopal (Protestant),	2,323	5,645	2,288	7,661	51	17,968
Episcopal (Reformed),	-	1	-	-	-	1
Evangelical,	5	6	8	14	1	34
Free Thinkers,	4	20	2	13	-	39
Friends,	10	20	3	33	-	66
Gospel Meetings,	1	-	2	1	-	4
Gregorian,	-	-	-	-	9	9
Higher Life,	2	4	-	9	-	15
Higher Souls,	-	1	-	1	-	2
Holiness,	2	2	5	3	-	12
Holy Ghost and Us,	3	4	1	3	-	11
Independent,	-	-	-	5	-	5
Infidel,	1	9	1	9	1	21
Jewish,	2,512	3,243	2,412	3,062	170	11,399

Recapitulation. Church Preferences: By Sex and Age — Concluded.

CHURCH PREFERENCES.	MALES		FEMALES		Sex Not Stated	Totals
	Under 18 Years	Over 18 Years	Under 18 Years	Over 18 Years		
Jewish (Reformed),	9	9	5	11	-	34
Latter Day Saints,	4	7	1	6	-	18
Liberalist,	-	1	-	1	-	2
Lutheran,	765	1,288	712	1,647	25	4,437
Lutheran (Danish),	5	28	10	27	1	71
Lutheran (Finnish),	1	-	-	-	1	2
Lutheran (Norwegian),	21	55	24	73	1	174
Lutheran (Reformed),	5	2	2	3	-	12
Lutheran (Swedish),	97	164	78	226	-	565
Masonic Temple,	-	1	-	1	-	2
Memorial Temple,	-	1	-	1	-	2
Mental Science,	-	3	-	3	-	6
Methodist,	1,830	4,481	2,012	5,649	41	14,013
Millennial Dawn,	-	1	-	8	-	9
Moravian,	-	3	-	2	-	5
Naturalist,	-	1	-	-	-	1
New Evangelist,	-	-	1	3	-	4
New Testament,	-	-	-	1	-	1
New Thought,	-	2	-	2	2	6
Pentecostal,	-	2	-	3	-	5
Plan of the Ages,	1	-	-	1	-	2
Presbyterian,	560	1,115	500	1,918	15	4,108
Presbyterian (Reformed),	-	5	5	4	-	14
Protestant,	36	219	30	177	180	642
Quakers,	4	8	2	8	-	22
Reformed,	5	7	4	7	-	23
Reformed (Dutch),	-	3	-	5	-	8
Reformed (German),	9	20	4	24	-	57
Salvation Army,	35	87	23	120	1	266
Socialist,	4	14	-	6	2	26
Somet Church,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Spiritualist,	16	97	9	153	14	289
Swedenborgian,	27	128	34	204	-	393
Theosophist,	-	3	-	6	-	9
Unitarian,	834	3,065	839	4,377	42	9,157
Universal,	-	2	3	8	-	13
Universalist,	353	1,421	351	1,986	7	4,118
Volunteers,	-	2	-	1	-	3
Zionists,	2	3	3	11	-	19
Missions:						
Bethany,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Bethel,	-	1	-	-	-	1
Chinese,	-	21	-	-	-	21
Church Alliance,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Church (Cambridge),	1	-	-	1	-	2
Peoples,	1	1	-	1	-	3
Y. M. C. A.,	-	1	-	-	-	1
Institutions:						
Deaf and Dumb,	1	3	1	2	-	7
Nationalities:						
Armenian,	8	22	6	5	-	41
French,	2	5	-	5	-	12
German,	2	24	6	20	-	52
Greek,	21	31	2	5	-	59
Italian,	1	1	1	1	9	13
Polish,	-	3	-	2	-	5
Portuguese,	4	10	4	11	-	29
Russian,	-	-	-	1	-	1
Swedish,	65	116	58	206	34	479
Syrian,	-	1	-	1	-	3
No preference,	893	4,274	700	3,105	24	8,996
Refused,	30	285	50	306	1,886	2,557
Not given,	71	852	58	626	7,299	8,906
TOTALS,	35,804	70,593	35,723	88,554	10,977	241,651

Classified in the above recapitulation are many expressed preferences which may appear, and undoubtedly are, trivial, but this Department does not feel called upon to determine what was in the minds of the canvassers when they made their reports, and in order that no denomination might be slighted all the variations have been included. Wherever it was possible to locate particular church preference from the other information on the cards, it was done, but where this was not possible, the particular preference given was retained. For example, seven persons

were reported as preferring the deaf and dumb church; it was decided by the Committee that this was a part of an institution, and is so recorded at the end of the recapitulation. Again, persons were returned as preferring the Swedish, the Syrian, the German, or other church designated merely by the name of some nationality, and it was deemed best to group these together, which is done at the end of the recapitulation.

The next table shows the largest church preferences by number and percentages.

CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Number	Percent-ages	CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Number	Percent-ages
Adventist,	234	0.10	Spiritualist,	289	0.12
Baptist,	21,117	8.74	Swedenborgian,	393	0.16
Catholic (Roman),	109,400	45.27	Unitarian,	9,157	3.79
Christian Scientist,	931	0.38	Universalist,	4,118	1.70
Congregationalist,	20,319	8.41	Other denominations,	2,231	0.92
Episcopal (Protestant),	17,968	7.44	No preference,	8,996	3.72
Jewish,	11,399	4.72	Refused,	2,557	1.06
Lutheran,	5,249	2.17	Not given,	8,906	3.69
Methodist,	14,013	5.80			
Presbyterian,	4,108	1.70	TOTALS,	241,651	100.00
Salvation Army,	266	0.11			

The summary of church preferences includes 241,651 persons. Of these, the Roman Catholics have 109,400, or 45.27 per cent, of all. The largest Protestant body, as shown, is the Baptists, numbering 21,117, or 8.74 per cent. The number is, however, in our opinion, open to question for this reason, the word "Baptist" appeared first on the card, and the tendency of the canvassers was to record against the first line, yet the correlative information did, in many cases, indicate some other denomination.

The last table shows the church attendance of the 241,651 persons reporting.

Church Attendance.

CHURCH PREFERENCES.	Sunday School Attendance	CHURCH ATTENDANCE				PERCENTAGES		
		Regular	Occasional	Not Given	Total	Regular	Occasional	Not Given
Baptist,	4,411	9,579	5,238	6,300	21,117	45.36	24.81	29.83
Catholic (Roman),	14,570	79,869	5,158	24,373	109,400	73.01	4.71	22.28
Congregationalist,	4,590	9,406	4,682	6,231	20,319	46.29	23.04	30.67
Episcopal (Protestant),	2,316	8,338	4,521	5,109	17,968	46.41	25.16	28.43
Jewish,	273	2,869	2,901	5,629	11,399	25.17	25.45	49.38
Lutheran,	670	2,272	1,375	1,602	5,249	43.28	26.20	30.52
Methodist,	3,210	6,403	3,642	3,968	14,013	45.69	25.99	28.32
Presbyterian,	644	1,944	969	1,195	4,108	47.32	23.59	29.09
Unitarian,	1,112	3,833	2,849	2,475	9,157	41.86	31.11	27.03
Universalist,	579	1,631	1,440	1,047	4,118	39.61	34.97	25.42
Other denominations,	371	1,789	610	1,945	4,344	41.18	14.04	44.78
No preference,	153	354	1,230	7,412	8,996	3.94	13.67	82.39
Refused,	-	-	-	2,557	2,557	-	-	100.00
Not given,	-	-	-	8,906	8,906	-	-	100.00
TOTALS,	32,899	128,287	34,615	78,749	241,651	53.09	14.32	32.59

The section of the card relating to the attendance of the individuals was very imperfectly filled, as is evidenced by the report of 78,749, or nearly one-third, of the persons as not answering this inquiry. Over one-half of the number canvassed were regular attendants at the church of

their preference, and the denomination leading in this respect is the Roman Catholic.

Before the enumeration was undertaken the Bureau agreed to tabulate and print the returns, and the presentation is made in accordance with that understanding. This Department assumes no responsibility for the accuracy of these returns, and is disposed to accept them as indicative only since no previous data relating to the City of Boston exist. The persons who acted as canvassers, owing doubtless to their services being voluntary and also to the fact that they were inexperienced in such work, failed to obtain a proper understanding of their instructions, thus rendering the returns of less value than was anticipated at the beginning of the canvass.

CURRENT COMMENT ON LABOR QUESTIONS.

[The Bureau does not necessarily indorse any of the views or opinions printed under this heading, its object being rather to present diverse views on labor questions, leaving the reader to draw his individual conclusions from the testimony or information supplied. The comments, as a rule, are presented in a condensed form; the titles of books, magazines, and newspapers, from which extracts are made, follow the articles, the date of publication, when known, being also given.]

Employer and Employee.

[Report of Committee (to Massachusetts Legislature) on Relations between Employer and Employee. Submitted (January, 1904) in Accordance with Resolve approved June 5, 1903.]

The report of the special Massachusetts commission, which has been considering the entire subject of the relations of employer and employee, contains a number of interesting recommendations and discussions. The findings of the commission may be summarized as follows:

1. Against compulsory profit sharing or voluntary profit sharing under State supervision and control.
2. Against a court of compulsory arbitration, but in favor of legislation enlarging the powers and duties of the State Board of Arbitration and Conciliation.
3. Against change in the law for attachment of wages, but providing legislation to prevent assignment of wages for more than two years or under a future employer, or unless executed in person.
4. *a.* State Board of Education should investigate and report upon feasibility of increasing compulsory school age to 15 years, and, if favorable, child labor under that age should be prevented.
- b.* Favors extension of restriction of employment of minors.
- c.* Illiterates under 16 to be excluded from gainful labor.
- d.* No children under 16 to be permitted to engage in gainful labor between seven P.M. and six A.M.
- e.* No legislation restricting hours of child labor until Board of Education makes report.
- f.* Fifty-eight hour law in mercantile establishments to be amended to cover month of December.
- g.* No legislation on Saturday half-holiday.
- h.* Tenement house ("sweat shop") labor to be registered monthly.

i. State Board of Health and Bureau of Statistics of Labor should investigate dangerous occupations.

j. State police force should be increased.

5. *a.* No amendment to Employers' Liability Act.

b. Employees' Compensation Act should be passed, by which injured employees shall receive compensation from the employer for injuries while in service, based upon their rates of wages.

c. No compulsory pension fund.

6. *a.* No legislation on "blacklisting."

b. Present statute on "intimidation" is sufficient.

c. No legislation on "boycotting."

d. No "blanket injunction" to be granted: Penalty for contempt to be deducted from punishment for crime when both are of the same nature. — *The Iron Age, New York, Jan. 28, 1904.*

Child Labor.

The American father wants to educate his children better than he was himself, and in order to do it the wages of the workingman must be kept up. If they are reduced the children must be taken from the schools before they get a proper training and be sent out to help support the house. In that way the social standard of the American workman is lowered by the immigrants. — *E. E. Clark in The Railway Conductor, December, 1903.*

The child labor law can only become effective, can only be a real protection to the working child, can only be instrumental in making for better citizenship, as the citizens of Illinois interest themselves to see that this law fulfills the purpose for which it was created. This responsibility falls with especial weight on the women of Illinois, as they were so largely instrumental in bringing it to pass. — *Harriet M. Van*

Der Vaart, Secretary Consumers' League of Illinois, in The Commons, February, 1904.

The industrial interests of the country, whether viewed from the standpoint of labor or capital, cannot afford to ignore the question of child labor. The employment of children in mines, mills and factories is a wrong that should not be permitted in any State in the Union. The future welfare of not only the American wage-earner, but of all the people demand laws that will put a stop to child labor everywhere. — *Organized Labor, San Francisco, Cal., Jan. 2, 1904.*

A tailor died in Chicago at the age of 33 recently, and the doctor gave the cause of his death as "premature senility." In other words, the tailor died of old age. A resident of a college settlement made an investigation and found that this tailor had been running a sewing machine ever since he had been a six-year-old boy. The hard work had stopped his growth and made him an old man at a time when he should have been in the prime of his manhood. — *The Factory Inspector, January, 1904.*

The trade unions have tried and with a very large degree of success to save the children from the factories and the mills and shops, and we are trying now still further. Some of the Southern States have recently responded; others will follow I am sure; but it is due to the organizations of labor which many of our opponents would endeavor to crush out of existence, the credit is due to them of having secured the child labor laws in the several States. — *Address by President Samuel Gompers before National Civic Federation, Chicago, Oct. 16, 1903, in American Federationist, December, 1903.*

Democracy believes to its very core in the modern mobility of industrial and commercial society, that mobility or fluidity which permits the capable and promising individual to rise through its various layers. It believes with all its might that every young American of remarkable capacity should find it easy to rise through all the grades of his trade till he becomes himself an employer and leader. It believes with all its soul that every child should be able to get the best education it is capable of receiving, and that society suffers a grave injury if the upward progress of a promising child is checked or prevented. — *Address of President Charles W. Eliot on Relation of Labor and Capital, Boston, Feb. 7, 1904.*

The recent strikes of the Chicago Candy Makers and the lockout in the National Biscuit Company have revealed conditions that are a disgrace to the institutions of this fair land. For a few dollars a week, women and children are employed at a daily period of 12 and 14 hours in the production of the candies and sweetmeats that are enjoyed by the wives and daughters of the rich people at their opulent tables, while intense suffering and want often press tears out of the fair eyes of our weaker companions in misery, who, toiling along day by day as many hours as they can possibly stand the strain, are oftentimes denied the necessary food and always lack the requisite rest and recreation for the enjoyment of the most modest share of human life. — *Bakers Journal, Cleveland, Ohio, Jan. 9, 1904.*

Child-labor, formerly exceedingly common, is now practically prohibited and made impossible by law in most of the States. Constitutions which under former conditions would have been prematurely weakened and impaired are now permitted to reach a sufficient degree of maturity to more successfully withstand the

inherent disease producing conditions of factory life and other indoor occupations. It is a well-known fact that occupations such as the potteries, glass works, and similar industries, in which children formerly commenced to labor at very early ages, are the occupations in which the after lifetime is very considerably below the average and in which tuberculosis and respiratory diseases are of more than common occurrence. — *Address of Frederick Hoffman before the Tuberculosis Exposition in Baltimore, January, 1904, in Charities, Feb. 13, 1904.*

With this roseate record of what has fallen to the lot of organized labor during the year there is just one little regret to record among the things that might have been. On the statute books of the State are many ample and well-advised measures of interest to the toiling masses; but the most important of all is the one tending to prohibit the employment of children in the shops and mills of the State. This law fails of enforcement because of the lack of competent officers. The laws are comprehensive in the broadest sense of the word, and would, if enforced, do away entirely with the greatest of existing industrial evils. It is specifically stated that no child under 14 years of age shall work in the factories and mills, yet an hour's walk about and in the vicinity of the city will convince anyone of the magnitude of the evasions of the statute. — *The Labor Leader, Baltimore, Jan. 9, 1904.*

We have been successful in the past year in securing the enactment of laws in Oregon, Texas, and Alabama restricting the labor of children. In Alabama the law is not such a one as to give satisfaction, but it is a beginning upon which we may justly count for improvement in the future. In New York and Pennsylvania the existing laws governing child labor have been materially improved. We can be engaged in no more praiseworthy work than to save the children, to protect their lives from the exploitation of avaricious employers, to gain for the children of our time and of the future, not only the right to live, but the right and opportunity of an education, of light and sunshine, and of play, that they may physically and mentally grow and morally expand, that they may become strong men and women of the future, ready to enjoy the privileges and perform the obligations devolving upon them in their time. — *Report of President Samuel Gompers, Twenty-third Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor at Boston.*

More important, however, . . . is the maintenance in the community of a persistent, lively interest in the enforcement of the child-labor statutes. Without such interest, judges do not enforce penalties against offending parents and employers; inspectors become discouraged and demoralized; or faithful officers are removed because they have no organized backing while some group of powerful industries clamors that the law is injuring its interest. Well-meaning employers grow careless, infractions become the rule, and workmen form the habit of thinking that laws inimical to their interest are enforced, while those framed in their interest are broken with impunity.

Upon parents there presses incessant poverty, urging them to seek opportunities for wage-earning even for the youngest children; and upon the employers presses incessant competition, urging them to reduce the pay-roll by all means fair and foul. No law enforces itself; and no officials can enforce a law which depends upon them alone. It is only when they are consciously the agents of the will of the people that they can make the law really protect the child

effectively. — *Florence Kelley, Secretary National Consumers' League, in Report of Labor Inspector of Kentucky, 1903.*

Child labor has a debilitating effect upon the mental and physical systems that drives men to tramp life. We have a municipal lodging-house in Chicago largely filled with tramps. In addition to housing them, an intelligent effort is made to get them into regular industry. A physician in attendance makes a careful examination of each man who comes to the lodging-house, and last winter we tried to see what connection could be genuinely established between premature labor and worn-out men. It is surprising to find how many of them are tired to death of monotonous labor and begin to tramp in order to get away from it, as a business man goes to the woods because he is worn out with the stress of business life. This inordinate desire to get away from work seems to be connected with the fact that the men have started to work very early, before they had the physique to stand up to it, or the mental vigor with which to overcome its difficulties, or the moral stamina which makes a man stick to his work whether he likes it or not. But we cannot demand any of these things from a growing boy. They are all traits of the adult. A boy naturally is restless, his determination easily breaks down, and he runs away. At least this seems to be true of many who come to the lodging-house. . . . What does this mean? That the young cannot stand up to the grind of factory life; that they break down under it, and that we have no right to increase the list of paupers — of those who must be cared for by the municipal and by State agencies because when they are still immature and undeveloped they are subjected to a tremendous pressure. — *Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, in Charities, New York, December, 1903.*

Victor Hugo has called the 19th the woman's century, and it is equally true that the 20th century belongs to the children. It is the aim of the reformer and the philanthropist to get hold of the children, because that is the work that is worth while. All over the world, wherever progressive movements are being carried on, the intellectual and the physical, the moral and the religious education of children is the work that appeals most strongly to those who are laboring to improve the race. The foreign and the home missions, too, a few years ago were preaching to grown-up people, but now the missionary considers that his best work is to teach the child.

Among the movements for the help of children which by and by will be regarded as one of the foremost, is what is known as the child labor movement, but I prefer to call it the anti-child labor cause. The great thing now among reformers is to secure uniformity of law in all of the States. Because Georgia is without child labor laws, it is hard to get satisfactory laws in Massachusetts. In our own State, children are allowed to work 58 hours a week, provided they are 14 years of age. When reformers have attempted to raise the age limit here they have been met with this argument: If child labor is to be done away with we will be forced to shut up our shops, because, by substituting men for children, we can't compete with those States where child labor is employed. Reformers are trying to have the age raised to 16, but the foregoing reason explains why we can't do that now. — *Address on Child Labor before the Mothers and Fathers Club by Mrs. Estelle M. H. Merrill, Boston, March 1, 1904.*

Over 50 per cent of the inmates of penitentiaries are under 26 years of age. Removed from the healthful,

enjoyable, moral and educational influences and associations of childhood and youth, the growing, impressionable mind of the boy or girl, overwhelmed with lessons of immorality, crime and the baser instincts of hardened natures developed in an atmosphere of degeneracy, gravitates towards penitentiaries. Penitentiaries are penal institutions and not generally corrective. They are society's vengeance, wreaked on its members, for infractions of its protective and progressive laws. While society permits and legalizes systems and institutions which develop criminals, prisons will be necessary to house them and afford society freedom from their presence. Criminals are not regenerated in penitentiaries and are usually more hardened after serving a term of imprisonment. While society permits the practice of child labor and the workday environment of children blunts the finer morals, natural delicacy and modesty, and prohibits the development of a rounded character, many youths with their baser natures and appetites cultivated, and many more made desperate by a premature breakdown of bodily health and strength, are, without the sustaining grace of moral restraint, easy victims to the temptations to commit crime of one description or another and graduate to the penitentiary. Save childhood, and manhood is saved. Reclaim a generation of children from the fell influences of too early toil, and our prisons would soon be depopulated. — *Shoe Workers' Journal, Boston, January, 1904.*

Nothing is more fatal to the future of a young boy or girl than working in a factory before the age of 14 or 15 years, and even at this age, long hours, days, and weeks passed in rooms filled with machinery, etc., necessarily exercise a disastrous influence upon the health. However good the ventilation may be, a factory is a factory. Work in the fields surely does not offer the same disadvantages for the children so engaged. In discussing the wages and hours of labor of workingmen it is too often forgotten that a man who began to work young, say at 14 or 15 years, in a factory, and has worked there for a period of 20 years has well nigh exhausted his supply of strength and vigor.

In our country, in our City of Montreal, there are many young children at work in the factories. At the age when they ought to be completing their education, preparing themselves for the struggles of life, they are shut within four walls for at least 10 hours each day. Most of them will never be more than dependents, subaltern employees (unskilled laborers). We can not too forcefully draw the attention of parents to the incalculable wrongs they are inflicting upon their children by having them work in factories or elsewhere before their schooling has been completed. Unfortunately, we lack, in a lamentable degree, practical and technical schools. If we had not classes in Arts and Trades we should have nothing. It behooves the Provincial Governments, the legislatures to develop instructions for the masses, to give them the means of struggling successfully against the races surrounding us, against our rivals.

At the pace at which things are going, the mass of our working population are in the straight way to become drawers of water and hewers of wood for those who know how to appreciate the value of a practical modern education. While we are remaining in the background our so-called public men are taxing their wits to work upon the prejudices of our compatriots to keep them from taking their own interests into consideration. — *La Patrie, Montreal, March 3, 1904.*

The women's clubs of Chicago, in conjunction with the authorities of the city, recently conducted an in-

vestigation of the children illegally employed (under the prescribed working age) whose wages were absolutely necessary in order to enable their families to live. A vigorous campaign was waged in Illinois last winter to secure the passage of a law bettering the protection of working children. The measure, as passed, stipulated that no child under 16 years could work more than eight hours in one day or after seven in the evening and that no child under 14 could be employed at all. As a result, there was a drastic clearing of children out of the stock yards and factories of Chicago. Thousands upon thousands were discharged, for public opinion demanded the enforcement of the law. Then went up a cry of hardship from hundreds of these families. The clubwomen and the public authorities co-operated in investigating these cases. The women entered upon the investigation with somewhat sinking hearts, for among so many hundreds they expected to find at least many scores of cases in which the wages of the working child were necessary. To their own surprise as much as that of the general public only three families in Chicago and five in the remainder of the State were found in which the wages of the child were actually necessary to permit the family to live. In every other case it was found that there was either a father who could be made to support the family, or older children on whose wages the family could manage to live, or relatives who, when approached by the authorities, were willing to assist the family until the child was of legal earning age.

For these eight children, then, the clubwomen of Illinois will supply scholarships equal to the wages they lost by the new law. In the case of the three Chicago children this was \$4 a week for two of them and \$2.50 a week for the third. For this pitiful sum society was permitting these children to grow up without a common school education. The clubs of Chicago will pay these sums weekly until the children are 14 years old. — *The National Labor-Standard*, Paterson, N. J., Feb. 20, 1904.

Child labor is the issue of the day. It is the most absorbing of all social topics. "How shall we save this country from this curse that is overtaking it East and West, North and South — how save the 1,500,000 little ones sacrificing their lives to earn a living?" This question is dealt with by the legislature — dealt with by all reform societies, dealt with by each and every society that stands on a humane platform. Child labor is the particular concern of the labor movement, and for several reasons: First, this great army of little toilers is recruited from our ranks, the working people. These children are the flowers of the poorer working people's families withering before their eyes. Misfortune, ignorance, Mammon's greed — whatever the cause may be which nips these tender flowers off the family stem, it is our families, not those of the rich, that bleed in consequence. Hence their cry of anguish which has aroused the world. Secondly, the selfsame multitude of children toilers works ruin and starvation in the multitude of adult workers. The competition they create in the trades which employ them is destructive to the last degree. Where is the father, or mother, who can compete with his or her child? Working men and women may at times run down so low on the scale of human life as to submit even to "starvation wages." But children's wages are away below this shameful limit. Thirdly, these children — thwarted, crippled and confined in this, their flowering period — must necessarily give rise to a new generation of deteriorated workers which the labor movement will have to reckon with perforce. What sanguine hopes can we

have of ever educating a generation of wage earners that has been enslaved from its infancy? To stem these evils, present and future, the labor movement has almost instinctively worked out a method which is unique. None compare with it, because none is so direct. Laws may be enacted against child labor, but laws will not always be enforced; are most always dodged. Protest may be raised against child labor. But what protest has ever aroused pity in the hearts of stones? Those who make children, God's chosen people, a stepping stone to wealth and luxury know no shame, protest as loud as you will. The labor unions, feeling the weakness of these and similar methods have instinctively, I say, worked out a method of their own. Recognizing their controlling power as consumers of all necessary commodities, they have addressed themselves to the rank and file in the following language: "As producers you are all interested in various crafts for the production of commodities which the working people at large consume. In some convenient way you can inform this great consuming public which of these commodities is fair Union labor and which is unfair scab labor. The working public, by buying the former and condemning the latter, could not only help you but protect itself. Out of this mutual understanding between the workingman consumer and the workman producer sprung the labor movement. It is the label which conveys just this intelligence to the working public. The presence of the label on any article is a guarantee that this article was made by Union (in a "close shop" at that); was made for fair wages, in a reasonable number of hours, and under good sanitary conditions. Its absence tells against all these things; tells, also, that the article may have been made in a sweat shop by children, or convicts in prison. This applies to all labels of every trade union. Workingmen and women of Cincinnati and elsewhere, in insisting on the Union Label of the International Ladies' Garment Workers, you not only help yourselves and us, but you strike a stunning blow against the greatest of all twentieth century crimes — child labor. — *Philip Davis in The Tobacco Worker*, Louisville, Ky., November, 1903.

In the week before I left for the South I dined with a very charming woman and her husband. Before a table exquisite in its appointments, laden with the best the market could offer and good taste display, sat the mistress, a graceful, intelligent young woman, full of philanthropic, charitable interests, and one whom I know to be devoted to the care and benefiting of little children in her city. During the meal I said to her casually:

"Do you know that in your mills in South Carolina to-night, as we sit here, little children are working at the looms and frames — little children, some of them not more than six years old?"

She said, in astonishment, "I don't know it; and I can't believe it."

I told her I should soon see just how true the reports were, and when I returned to New York I would tell her the facts. She is not alone in her ignorance. Not one person, man or woman, to whom I told the facts of the cases I observed "dreamed that children worked in any mills in the United States!" After my experience amongst the working class, I am safe in saying that I consider their grievances to be the outcome of the ignorance and greed of the manufacturer abetted, aided and made possible by the ignorance and poverty of the laborer. . . . On my return to the North I made an especial effort to see my New England friend. . . . I drew for my friend as well as I could pictures of what I had seen. She

leaned forward, took a brandied cherry from the dish in front of her, ate it delicately and dipped her fingers in the finger-bowl; then she said:

"Dear friend, I am going to surprise you very much."

I waited, and felt that it would be difficult to surprise me with a tale of a Southern mill

"Those little children—love the mill! They like to work. It's a great deal better for them to be employed than for them to run the streets!"

She smiled over her argument, and I waited.

"Do you know," she continued, "that I believe they are really very happy."

She had well presented her argument. She had said she would surprise me—and she did.

"You will not feel it a breach of affection and hospitality if I print what you say?" I asked her. "It's only fair that the capitalist's view should be given here and there first hand. You own one-half the mill in———, Carolina?"

"Yes."

"What do you think of a model mill with only nine hours a day labor, holidays and all nights free, schools, where education is enforced by the State; reading-rooms open as well as churches—amusement halls, music, recreation and pleasure, as well as education and religion?"

"I think," she said keenly, "that united, concentrated action on the part of the cotton mill owners might make such a thing feasible; for us to try it alone would mean ruin."

"Not ruin," I amended; "a reduction of income."

"Ruin," she said, firing. "We couldn't compete. To compete," she said with the conviction of an intelligent, well-informed manufacturer, "I must have my 66 hours a week!"—*Marie Van Vorst in The Woman Who Toils, 1903.*

Does working by the wife and children make the father's wages low, or must they work because his wages were already insufficient for the family's support before their work began, and would be low whether they worked or not? The trade union doctrine gives a decided affirmative answer to the first part of the above question, and appears sometimes to oppose work by women for wages, on the ground that men's pay should be high enough to support the women as formerly, apart from gainful occupations. Some even say that the father's pay is reduced by the full amount the others in the family earn. This doctrine rests on the same fallacy as the union argument for shortening the work day, and arises from a failure to perceive the limitations of the fact that wages depend upon scarcity of labor to be hired. That they depend upon such scarcity is true; but except when marginal profits are already high, it is true only so far as rise in wages is based upon rise in value of labor's product, which is what the employer buys. . . .

Where people are ignorant and dependent, however, whether the husband be indolent or not, work at wages by the wife and children has always tended to lower the pay of the father. Instead of seeking from all the employers the highest wages their competition to hire help will induce them to pay, he meekly takes what is offered if it will support the grade of life to which the family has been accustomed. A smaller sum is made sufficient for him by the income from the work of wife and children. . . .

The employment of children wastes labor power in a country, by cutting short their education and stunting their growth, thus taking from the total labor-product of their adult life a quantity many times greater than what they produce by child work. . . .

Unionism's opposition to child labor is producing good results in labor laws, and in the important matter of compulsory education, though perhaps it is but slightly based on the sound motive of so guarding children as to benefit them and society by making the total of their life service as large as possible. Yet for this opposition there would be, and may be, good reason in desiring boys to grow up strong and resolute, so that they will demand through proper unionism the largest pay in reach, as those boys do who are trained in public industrial schools. . . .

The parent's right of control over the child, to the extent of abuse, has never been recognized by civilized States in modern times. Habitually carrying heavy bundles up five flights of steps, for parents that act kindly, may be worse abuse of a frail child than frequent whippings by parents that act brutally. In the long run, not only would no life be wasted, but less charity would be required, to allow children to grow up to self-support in school supplementing with poor relief what they might earn after school hours, than by permitting them to be made physical wrecks in work for parents. Enforcement of laws regulating work in factories will keep young children out of them, and provide for the health and safety of adults. These laws could be extended, as in New York and Massachusetts, to cover every concern employing one person not belonging to the family.—*George L. Bolen, in Getting a Living, 1903.*

The Employment of Children Act, England, 1903, will come into operation in January, 1904. The protection afforded to children by the measure is two-fold:

1. By statutory provisions which render a certain amount of protection absolute and universal;
2. By an optional power to local authorities to give further protection by means of local by-laws.

The power to make such by-laws being only permissive, it will be necessary for those who care for the welfare of the children to bring pressure upon local authorities to make the Act as fully protective as possible. Every candidate should be urged to pledge himself to support the adoption of the Act by the municipality, and we appeal to those interested in the proper administration of the new law to use every endeavor to bring its provisions before candidates.

The following brief summary of the Act and its provisions shows what it does and what it may do to protect the life, limb, health, and improve the education of the children of the nation.

What it does. The statutory clauses (1) forbid the employment of children (under 14) between nine at night and six in the morning (unless these hours are varied by by-laws); (2) prohibit street trading by children under 11 years; (3) forbid children employed half-time under the Factory and Workshop Act to be employed in any other occupation, and (4) prevent the employment of a child in any occupation likely to be injurious to his health or education. (5) The Act also prohibits the licensing of children under 10 for public entertainments. The age limit has hitherto been seven years. Unless the local authority and the police take effective measures to enforce these statutory provisions they will remain a dead letter.

What it may do. If local authorities adopt the Act and make by-laws, they may (1) prohibit, regulate, or license street trading by persons between the ages of 11 and 16. It is plainly indicated by the Act that street trading by girls under 16 should be entirely prohibited or carefully safeguarded. (Sect. 2, c. 2.)

(2) They may fix any age up to 14, below which employment of any sort is locally illegal. They should be asked to make 12 years of age the lowest limit for

employment out of school hours by children attending school full time, not having a half time certificate.

(3) They may determine the hours between which employment is locally illegal.

(4) They may fix the daily and weekly hours beyond which employment is illegal.

Candidates should be asked to secure considerable restriction in the hours of employment of children in all occupations. It should be impossible in the future to employ a child for 30, 40, or 50 hours weekly. (See Minutes of Evidence taken before the Inter-Departmental Committee on the Employment of School Children.) The work of children in pernicious or undesirable occupations should be prohibited altogether.

It should be noted that the Local Authorities to administer the Act are the Councils of Municipal Boroughs with a population of over 10,000, the Councils of Urban Districts where the population is over 20,000, and elsewhere the County Councils. It should be observed, however, that separate by-laws may be made for a specified part of the area of any local authority (Section iv [4]). It will be seen, therefore, that there need be no difficulty in securing by-laws framed to meet the needs of each locality. Every effort should be made by industrial, philanthropic and educational organizations to secure the efficient enforcement and administration of the Act.—*The General Federation of Trade Unions, London, September, 1903.*

If trade unionism had rendered no other service to humanity, it would have justified its existence by its efforts in behalf of the working women and children. . . . There is no hope for the poor children of the South, except the possibility of succor from trade unions. While the sentiment of the entire country is one of righteous indignation against the cold-blooded, money-seeking owners of Southern cotton and tobacco mills, it needs the constant stimulus of a strong union movement to crystallize this sentiment and render it effective. Many of the owners of these mills, drawing their dividends from an anonymous company, are growing rich upon the flesh and blood of thousands of emaciated wretches, whom they have never seen. The sentiment of the community should be directed against these persons as individuals as well as against the industries they represent, and a concentrated effort should be made so to educate the legislators of the States that they will assume a virtue if they have it not, and in spite of their own selfish ends and aims legislate for the protection of these children.

I wish, even at the risk of tiresome repetition, to insist upon the absolute wastefulness and the utter depravity of this system of child labor. There is no need to search for extreme and exceptional instances of hardship. The ordinary life of the ordinary child in the factory run under ordinary and usual conditions is such as no society should permit. It is a well-known fact that children in mines and factories are much more exposed to accidents than are adults, capable of avoiding recognized dangers. They are also more liable to disease, more liable to the poisoning and infection of their young bodies, more liable to premature death or complete disability. The utter ruthlessness of this parasitic exploitation of children before they can arrive at strength or maturity should animate statesmen to legislate against this abomination and destroy it root and branch. We are daily seeing the spectacle of children taken out of school and thrust into factories, with the result that a few years of ineffectual work are added and a great many years of productive and effective labor are lost. . . .

In its attempts to ameliorate the conditions brought about by this cruel exploitation of child labor, trade unionism has met with opposition not only from the more unscrupulous manufacturers, but also from the less intelligent workmen. It is unfortunately a fact that many workmen and even a few trade unionists are still so ignorant that they do not perceive that a prohibition of child labor will improve their own condition, as well as save their children from a useless, if not a vicious, life. The father of a family sees only the two, three, or four dollars which his little boy or girl brings home, and fails to see that these same dollars are taken from his own wages by the employment of his children. It is a fact proved over and over again that the wages of men whose children are not employed are greater than the total wages of the families of men who permit their children to work. The investigation of various bureaus of labor throughout the United States has clearly demonstrated that the entire wages of workmen's children, and even more than this amount, are deducted from the wages of the workmen themselves. This is indisputable, but even if it were not, the workmen of the country should be—and in the majority of cases are—above the temptation to obtain a temporary increase in the income of their families by means of the sacrifice of their own flesh and blood.

The trade unions of this country should stand for education laws in the various States, compelling all children below the age of 16 to attend school for the full term. They should also insist upon the enactment of laws establishing a minimum age of 16 years below which children might not work in mills, mines, factories, or mercantile establishments. These laws should be rigidly, strictly, and equably enforced, and the various evasions due to the deliberate perjury of parents and employers should be guarded against. Provision, I believe, should be made for cases in which such a prohibition of child labor would work undue and exceptional hardship, but these regulations should be of such a nature that no favoritism could result and that no large body of children could be employed. There are a few cases, amounting, perhaps, to two or three per cent of the children drafted into factories and mines, in which the establishment of a minimum age of 16 might work needless hardship, but, as has been shown by the laws of several States, these cases may be provided for without opening the door to numerous evasions and to the practical nullification of the law.

Whatever the specific measure taken by trade unions, their policy must always be based upon the fixed determination to keep children out of the factory and the mine. The prosperity, the very existence, of our civilization depends upon the safeguarding and protection of the child, depends upon the immunity of the weak from the oppression and aggression of the strong and unscrupulous. No trade unionist is loyal to his cause, who is not solicitous for the welfare of the least of the little children in industry, and no permanent progress can be attained until all workmen and all well-intentioned members of society are united in a determined effort to protect children and to guarantee to them a happy, healthy, and useful existence.—*Organized Labor, by John Mitchell, 1903.*

The question of child labor is not a new one in the State of Kentucky. . . . Whilst the Child Labor Law, placing the age limit for children to work in factories, workshops, etc., at 14 years, has only been on our statute books 18 months, it has been the means of checking the growing tendency of employing children. Still there remains much to be done in order

to strengthen the law in its weak points. The present law designates the county judges and county attorneys of this Commonwealth as the sole custodians of the law. They can destroy much effect of the law if careless in granting permits for children to work. Unfortunately, this has been the case in many counties throughout the State. Several judges have granted permits to children ranging all the way from eight to 12 years of age; a majority of them can not read and write, not to speak of the nature of the work they are to perform, the long hours of labor and the dangerous and unhealthful conditions surrounding them. These children, in most cases, are required to work 12 hours daily. I am happy to say, however, that a majority of judges of the various counties administer the law splendidly, guarding it as they would their lives. However, the law should be amended so as to require county judges to ascertain whether or not the child can read and write the English language before granting them permits, no matter how justifiable the case may otherwise be. This would, in my opinion, put a check on the heartless parents, who themselves have never received educational training, and consequently never consider the need of education for their children, nor look to their future welfare, their only desire being to hire out their offspring as slaves of capital for some small-moneyed consideration. It is especially shameful that in this State there should be found any parents so brutal as to knowingly and willfully give their written consent for the employment of their children to operate and work about machinery of the most dangerous character; besides, they exonerate such manufacturer from all blame for accidents or even deaths that might occur to such child while so employed. I have personally read and examined many such statements of consent. The Labor Inspector should be given the power to remove children from all such places deemed unsafe and dangerous to life and limb, and I shall so recommend. . . .

As shown in the review of the work of inspection, we have caused to be dismissed 807 children under 14 years of age; we have required 930 sworn statements of children who appeared of a doubtful age; we have examined 684 permits granted by county judges. Many children worked months without having certificates on file showing that they were past fourteen years of age. Their employers, in many cases, being too busy to attend to the matter themselves, must trust entirely to their foremen in these matters. Copies of the law have been furnished to proprietors, foremen, owners, and all other persons having the right to hire and discharge, and as much publicity has been given the law as could be obtained, in order that none could plead ignorance of the law and its contents.

I desire to say that, in my opinion, no question has more keenly interested the citizens of Kentucky, regardless of their standing in life, than the one of child labor. Right-thinking people of all classes recognize that taking children from school at a youthful period and placing them in factories, workshops, etc., cuts off opportunity for physical and mental development. If there is one thing upon which people are more generally agreed than any other, it is that the existence of a government conducive to the highest prosperity of all is dependent upon the virtue, health, and intelligence of the masses who compose it. Children forced into factories and other kinds of employment at an early age can not, except in very rare cases, develop into intelligent, robust men and women. . . . If certain tendencies in our industrial development are found to be at war with the proper education of the youth of our State or country, no argument is needed to convince any thoughtful person that such

tendencies should be checked. Even if goods are made cheap, is not the cheapness purchased too dearly if purchased at the expense of stunted, crippled, and dwarfed human beings? We can not afford to destroy men and women in their childhood for the sake of cheapening commodities. An advancing civilization is more important than that a few individuals shall secure great wealth. There is, moreover, an actual economy to the State in so educating and developing its youth as to produce the highest and best type of citizenship, as compared to allowing men to be reared in an atmosphere of withering toil, ignorance, and unhealthful surroundings. . . . Undoubtedly the most serious offenders in this State, in the line of working children when they ought to be attending school, are the worsted, cotton, woolen, and blanket mills and the cordage, hemp, tobacco, and box factories. We have done all in our power, however, to give these little wage-earners better protection on machinery as well as ventilation and sanitary regulations.— *Bureau of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics, State of Kentucky, Report from July, 1902 to December, 1903.*

A decrease in the total number of children in New York given permits to work, an elimination of the perjury by parents—used under the old law to get children into factories and stores, the establishment of systematic co-operation between the authorities which enforce the law and the authorities which investigate and, if necessary, relieve the poverty conditions, so often alleged as the cause of child labor—these are some of the facts brought out in a report of the Child Labor Committee of New York.

The new law has been in operation since October 1. During the months of October, November, and December certificates were issued to 2,922 children in New York City, or 67 per cent of all who applied; whereas during the same months of the preceding year certificates were issued to 4,353 children, or 80 per cent of all who applied. The stricter requirements which have caused this change are as follows:

1. A minimum age.
2. A minimum amount of schooling.
3. Proof that the child has been observing the compulsory school law.

For 18 years the minimum age in New York State has been 14 years, but not until the present time has any real evidence of age been required. There is good reason to believe that under the old law more than half of the affidavits filed by parents regarding their children's age were false. Under the new law the parent's word is not recognized as proving age. For every certificate issued there is filed some official or religious paper as evidence of age. From an examination of more than 200 of these certificates it appears that in 41 per cent of the cases official birth certificates were filed; in 41 per cent, baptismal certificates; and in 11 per cent, confirmation or Jewish "Barmitzrab" certificates. Circumcision certificates and passports are also filed in a few cases. The number who are unable to produce the proof of age required is gratifyingly small, an average of but 18 a week in the borough of Manhattan.

In requiring a minimum amount of schooling in addition to a minimum age, New York is in advance of all other States in the union. The provision is practically that 14-year-old children who wish to work must have reached at least the grade of the average 12-year-old child. In addition to this, children must prove over their principal's signature that they have been keeping the school law—that is to say, have been attending school regularly up to the age of 14 years. The enforcement of these conditions has revealed the fact that over 7,000 14-year-old children in the

public schools alone were in or below the 12-year-old grade, and were thus ineligible for work certificates had they all applied. Prompt action has been taken by the Board of Education to remedy this condition by the formation of special classes for the more individual treatment and more rapid advancement of such children. The number of children refused because they are below grade or because they have been violating the school law averaged 48 a week in the borough of Manhattan between November 21 and January 2.

The harmony between the compulsory education and child labor laws, secured for the first time last winter, has made the basis of a co-operation between the Boards of Education and Health which was impossible before. The names of all children who are refused work certificates by the Board of Health are now sent each week to the Board of Education, and attendance officers see to it that they remain in school. These children are sometimes 14 and even 15 years of age, but are rejected because of their deficient schooling. They are required to remain in school until they reach the age of 16 years unless they qualify for work before that time; similarly, co-operation has been established with the State Department of Labor. Inspectors of this Department find from 25 to 50 children a week working illegally in factories. The names of such children are sent regularly to the Board of Education. They are thus not merely turned into the street or left free to find illegal employment elsewhere; they are placed in school and kept there until they qualify for work.

To anticipate the complaint that the law works a hardship in cases where it is claimed the child's earnings are needed for the support of the family, the Child Labor Committee announced that it would see that no suffering was caused if such cases were brought to its attention. The 69 cases of this character referred to the Committee have all been provided for through the regular relief societies of the city. In 51 instances visits to the homes proved, usually on the admission of the parent, that the child's earnings were not really needed. In 13 cases need of a temporary character was discovered and relief was given until the family again became independent by the re-employment of the wage-earner who had either been out of work or sick. Five cases remain where the need was continuous; in each of these the child is now kept at school, the family receiving what is termed a "scholarship," nearly if not equivalent to what the child could earn if it had been allowed to work. But only a part of the cases of this character have been brought to the attention of this Committee; many have been referred direct to the relief societies by the district superintendents of schools in accordance with instructions recently issued from the Board of Education. — *Report of the Child Labor Committee, New York, on New Child Labor Law, 1904.*

One of the most far reaching among the recent laws of Germany is that governing the employment of minors in industrial pursuits, enacted March 30, 1903, to take effect on the first day of January, 1904.

This law forms the last link in a long chain of legislation aimed against the abuse of infant labor, and is thought to complete the protection of children from industrial exploitation.

Infant labor, apart from that in industrial plants, was hitherto beyond control, especially that found among "home manufacturers." The latter employment embraces by far the larger number of children thus held to labor, latest statistics showing that only 27,000 German children under 14 years of age labored in factory plants, while 532,283 under that age were engaged in diverse industrial pursuits outside of fac-

tories, thus comprising six per cent of all German children of school age.

The law in question primarily differentiates between employments in which children's labor is absolutely prohibited and such as admit of the labor of children under 14 years of age, certain restrictions and safeguards being observed.

Inhibited trades comprise building operations of all kinds, brickyards, certain classes of manufacturing establishments, the breaking of rocks, chimney sweeping, hauling or teaming, grinding or mixing of paints, and work in cellars or vaults. The law itself permits the upper house (Bundesrath) to extend the prohibition to other trades not enumerated. Some trades or occupations are named in the conduct of which such children may be only employed as messengers or for the doing of chores. In still other trades the law draws distinctions between the employment of non-related and own children. The latter term is sufficiently comprehensive to include more remote descendants, nephews, nieces, wards, stepchildren, and any other minors that regularly constitute members of the household.

Infants are defined to be such as are under 13 years of age, as well as such boys and girls still subject to compulsory school attendance. The employment of one's own children is permitted in a somewhat larger degree than that of nonrelated children, provided always that the industry itself is not a prohibited one.

In manufactories, trades, and traffic the employment of nonrelated children under 12 years of age is absolutely prohibited. Own children are protected from such employment when under the age of 10 years. Employment of nonrelated children over 12 years of age is also forbidden between the hours of 8 P.M. and 8 A.M., as well as before the beginning of the morning school hour. The labor of such children must not exceed three hours per day during school terms, nor four hours per day during vacation. A recess of two hours must be afforded during the middle of the day. In the afternoons such employment can only begin a full hour after close of school. The same provisions cover the employment of own children over 10 years of age. Such own children are forbidden to labor in the homes or shops of parents or guardians for strangers. Neither own nor other children can be employed in public theatrical exhibitions; but the proper authorities may permit an exception where the school authorities are convinced that interest in art or science will be promoted and the morals of the child not imperiled thereby. Due care is also required that no injury to health be sustained through the child's participation in such exhibitions.

In the conduct of inns and taverns children under the age of 12 years can not be employed in any capacity, nor may young girls be engaged in serving guests. The employment of children over 12 years old in such branches is subject to the same restrictions above set forth relative to their employment in factories, trades, and traffic. But in towns having less than 20,000 inhabitants, the local magistrate, after consultation with the school authorities, may permit exceptions in instances where inns or taverns are customarily conducted only by members of the families of proprietors, and a satisfactory showing is made that the child's morals are not improperly affected thereby.

One of the chief lines of infant labor in this country is the carrying of parcels or messages. According to statistics, 42,837 children in Germany are employed in carrying bakers' wares, 45,603 in carrying newspapers, and 35,900 as messengers simply. This law draws a wide distinction between own and nonrelated children

with regard to this species of employment. Nonrelated children are protected by the same provisions which are above set forth relative to factories, trades, and traffic, but with a certain transition period provided. From January 1, 1904, to January 1, 1906, the governing authorities, with the advice of the school authorities, may in each district, or parts thereof, permit the employment, in certain or all of the trades, of children over the age of 12 years as early as 6.30 A.M. and before the opening of school, but not longer than one hour preceding such opening, and this permission must cease absolutely after January 1, 1906.

Own children may be employed in the carrying of goods or messages without other limitation than such as may be established by way of police regulation. Finally, this law contains provisions relative to Sunday as a day of rest. Nonrelated children can not, as a rule, be made to labor on Sundays and holidays. Such restriction is, however, not enforced as to Sunday exhibitions which serve to promote the interests of science and art. The delivery of parcels and messages on Sundays is limited to two hours and can not continue after one P.M. Neither may the same occur later than 30 minutes preceding the main church service, nor during the same. The employment of own children on Sundays is prohibited only in factories, trades, and traffic, while otherwise their work is no more restricted than on week days.

Every employer about to hire children pursuant to the terms of this law must notify the local police authorities of such intention. This notice must set forth the location and character of the establishment where such children are to labor. No such notice need be given where the employment is a merely occasional one or for disconnected chores. The regular employment of an infant is unlawful until the prospective employer shall have secured an employment card for such infant. The police department of the locality where the child was last domiciled must issue such card gratuitously on application or with the consent of the person standing *in loco parentis* to the child.

The employer must preserve this card, produce the same upon official demand, and surrender it to the parent or guardian of the child upon conclusion of the employment.

The chief difficulty in the enforcement of this law, it is believed, will be found in the question of control, especially so with regard to children working at home. On the one hand, a too rigid espionage upon the domestic affairs of each family was justly deemed undesirable, while, on the other, a certain measure of police interference could not be avoided. Section 20 of this law, therefore, empowers that the police authorities of the district, in cases where abuses appear, may, after consultation with, or on motion of, the school authorities, either limit or altogether prohibit the employment of any infant in the manner otherwise permitted, or cancel its card and forbid the issuance of a new one. The police authorities are further permitted, in order to abolish conditions seriously endangering good morals, to limit or altogether forbid the employment of children in certain inns or taverns.

The body to whom the general enforcement of the law is intrusted in Prussia is the board of trade inspectors (Gewerbe-Inspektoren). To this end, they shall possess all the official powers of the local police authorities, especially that of constant inspection. However, such inspections may not occur at night in private dwellings where own children alone are engaged, unless good cause shall exist to suspect that such children are made to work at night. While the law does not more closely define the term "night," it may be assumed that thereby the usual hours of rest

and abstention from work are intended. At least there is nothing in the law to indicate that the legislators thereby intended the period from eight P.M. to eight A.M.

The law prescribes certain penalties to enforce obedience to its requirements, and an habitual violation thereof may be punished by imprisonment for a term of six months.

As a novel regulation this law at the beginning will probably be found irksome by both employers and parents, and it is predicted that efforts at circumvention will not be wanting. Much aid in creating a proper sentiment in favor of the law, as well as in assisting toward a rigid enforcement of its beneficent provisions, is expected from the school authorities, to whom the law itself has given a voice in furthering its sociological aims. The public policy which dictated the enactment of the law is almost universally recognized as sound and humane.—*Hugo Muench, Consul, Plauen, Germany, Dec. 10, 1903.*

Our attention has been called to the desirability of absolutely prohibiting from employment children under 16 years of age who are illiterate; to the prohibition of child labor in occupations not now covered, and to the prohibition of the labor after seven P.M. of all children working for gain. The labor of children is regulated at the present time in three ways: (1) by the absolute prohibition to engage in certain industries until a certain age has been reached; (2) by the regulation of the hours of labor; (3) by the requirement of certain educational qualifications. . . .

The proposition to raise the age limit at which children shall be permitted to work in factories, workshops and mercantile establishments is one of the deepest importance, and deserves the most careful consideration. It is in line with past legislation in which Massachusetts has taken an enviable lead. In 1867 the age limit in factories and workshops was fixed at 10 years; in 1888, at 13 years; and in 1898, at 14 years; at the latter date the prohibition was extended to mercantile establishments. It is now proposed to raise this age limit still higher. . . . The total number of children reported as employed in manufacturing, mechanical, and mercantile establishments has not fluctuated greatly during the past 10 years. Proportionally to the total number of adult operatives engaged in manufacturing and mercantile pursuits in Massachusetts, there has been, indeed, a marked decrease. In 1892 the ratio of child to adult labor, as represented by the returns of the factory inspectors, was one child to 18 adults; in 1897, as one to 27; and in 1902, as one to 31. We cannot, however, ascribe the results indicated by these favorable figures to the influence of legislation alone. Improvement in machinery has made automatic many processes formerly given into the hands of children; public sentiment has undoubtedly had some influence in discountenancing the employment of children; many employers are averse to child labor; and fluctuations in industrial activity frequently effect marked changes in the employment of minors. . . . In addition to the legislation absolutely excluding children from certain occupations, two States—New York and Illinois—have recently passed certain measures which practically shut out children 14 and 15 years of age from a large range of employment. New York, for instance, restricts the labor of children under 16 to nine hours a day, and Illinois to eight hours a day. . . . From this point of view, these two States may be said to have gone beyond Massachusetts in child labor legislation. It must be admitted, however, that the problem of child labor in Massachusetts is more difficult to adjust than in the two States named. Child labor here is

more concentrated in a few industries, and these industries compete with rivals in States which are only beginning to restrict child labor to any considerable degree. About one-half of the children between 14 and 16 years are to be found in the textile mills.

While an immediate increase in the age limit of children to 16 as a condition of employment might be a hardship to some of the industries of the State, we believe that there is no sound reason for concluding that the age of 14 is to be accepted as the final limitation. The general welfare of the Commonwealth would be subserved if children could be kept in school for a longer period of youth; such a restriction would also undoubtedly tend to diminish the migration to this State of less intelligent grades of labor, which rely upon the earnings of small children for the support of the family; and it would in the long run also increase the intelligence, and, ultimately, the efficiency of its labor force. This view is strengthened when it is seen that a very considerable number of children now leave school before the conclusion of the grammar grade. Many children from the foreign elements of our population pass into the ranks of the employed from the sixth and even the fifth grade of schooling. While it may be undesirable as yet to establish a definite educational qualification, as expressed in the completion of so many grades of the school curriculum, as a prerequisite to entering upon employment, it certainly is desirable that the State should throw its weight in that direction. It is also true that many children at the age of 14 are physically undersized; that in some cases parents are untruthful in statements made in regard to the age of children, and that this deception is made the more possible with an increasing immigration from countries in Eastern Europe or Asia. In view, however, of established industrial conditions, it does not appear desirable to increase the age limit at one stroke by as much as two years; and we are impressed by the fact that, inasmuch as any legislation which would result in preventing children from engaging in gainful occupations necessarily demands an extension of the compulsory school age, the question cannot be satisfactorily settled without some discussion of the educational factors involved, as well as of the industrial interests which are concerned.

The educational aspects of this question are obviously of the gravest importance. On the one hand, is it wise to force all children 14 years of age to attend school, and not permit them to follow a natural impulse to become wage earners, either on their own account or for the benefit of the family when in distress? On the other hand, is our educational curriculum so varied at the present time that it can meet the wants of all children after they have arrived at the age of 14? Objection to an increase in the school age is made on the ground that some children after the age of 13 are actually better off in the factory or the store than in the school-room,—they become restless and discontented; sound psychology, it is asserted, demands that these children should not be denied the exercise of their talents in industrial activity; if repressed, or forced against their will to attend school, they are apt to deteriorate in character and to lower the general discipline of the school. It is also declared that many schools are not yet prepared to furnish adequate educational facilities for a much larger number of children above the age of 13; this would demand an enlargement of high school and other forms of educational investments which are very expensive.

In regard to arguments of this character, we do not feel warranted in expressing a definite judgment; the

truth can be determined only by a prolonged inquiry from superintendents, teachers, officers of children's institutions, and school committees. It is recognized that in the past somewhat similar objections have been made to an increase in the compulsory school age and the age under which employment was forbidden; and we have already observed that there may be no sound reason why the Commonwealth should accept 14 years as a final limit. We therefore believe that the subject of raising the compulsory school age to 15 should be reported upon by the State Board of Education after legislative authorization. . . . If the report of the Board of Education be favorable to an increase in the compulsory school age to 15, we recommend the passage of a bill stipulating that no child under 15 years of age shall be employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment. . . .

A second proposition restricting the scope of child labor relates to an extension of prohibition to occupations not now covered. Children under 14 years of age can now work in employments other than factories, workshops, and mercantile establishments when school is not in session. They can thus work in offices and hotels; engage in street trades, as newspaper boys, bootblacks, and peddlers; deliver for express or telegraph companies, or act as messengers. If employment throughout the day is considered undesirable for children under 14 years of age in factories and stores, it would seem equally so for children in business offices, hotels, and in express or messenger service. Restrictions have already been extended over some of these employments in New York and Illinois. New York has this year extended the child-labor law to protect children in cities of over 3,000 inhabitants, employed in business offices, telegraph offices, restaurants, hotels, apartment houses, and "in the distribution and transmission of merchandise or messages" (Acts of 1903, c. 255); and Illinois includes in the list of employments prohibited to children under 14, work in offices and hotels. We therefore recommend the passage of a bill extending the restriction of the employment of minors. . . .

While we are not yet prepared to recommend the exclusion from labor in gainful occupations of all children under 16 years of age, we believe that illiterates under 16 years of age who cannot read at sight and write legibly in the English language should not be permitted to engage in employment while day schools are in session. At the present time all illiterate minors, including those 16 years and upwards, are obliged, if they work, to attend an evening school (R. L., c. 106, § 35). . . . Undoubtedly the work of these schools is well done, but in many instances this double duty of day labor and evening attendance we believe to be a hardship to children as young as 14 and 15 years old. It does not conduce to the development of an educated electorate. The exclusion of illiterate minors under 16 from employment will create some hardship in individual families and possibly be temporarily an inconvenience to some mills; but if a minimum amount of education is regarded as a condition to the franchise in Massachusetts, a consistent policy demands that the school retain its claim upon the child to at least the age of 16, in order to make good this condition. We therefore recommend a bill forbidding the employment of minors under 16 years of age who cannot read and write in the English language. . . .

Various propositions have been made to prohibit further the labor of children at night. In 1888 a law was passed preventing night work by children under 14 years of age between seven P. M. and six A. M.; and in 1890 a restrictive measure was enacted prohibiting minors from working in manufacturing establishments

between 10 P.M. and six A.M. These laws still stand. In addition, there is an implied limitation upon night work of minors in mercantile establishments, by the law limiting the number of hours of labor to 58 a week, except during the month of December. . . . The arguments in favor of shutting children out from night work are so obvious that they do not need extended discussion, nor does it appear that one kind of employment should be favored as against another. The physical and moral advantages to be gained by exclusion from night work are common to all children. We therefore recommend that no children under 16 years of age be permitted to engage in any gainful occupation between seven o'clock in the evening and six o'clock in the morning. . . .

Some of the bills brought before the committee propose that the labor of children shall be restricted by reducing the number of hours of labor a day or a week, as, for example, to nine hours a day, or 54 hours a week. Inasmuch as the labor of children interlocks in some industries with the labor of adults who now work 10 hours a day, we fear that such a restriction would practically result in the discharge of children from employment. Such an outcome would be unfortunate, unless the children were forced to attend school by a change in the compulsory school law, already referred to. We therefore do not favor the consideration of legislation further limiting the number of hours of labor of children until that question is reported upon by the State Board of Education.

It has been represented that much hardship results from the exception made in the 58-hour law (R. L., c. 106, § 23), by which women and minors in mercantile establishments may be compelled to work long hours

during the month of December. We understand that as a rule, many of the larger stores do not take advantage of this exception, but obey the spirit of the 58-hour law throughout the year. We see no reason why all establishments should not conform to the more considerate practice of the majority. If stores find it necessary to keep open evenings in order to satisfy the requirements of customers at the holiday season, arrangements should be made for adjusting the hours of employees throughout the day so that the total number of hours does not exceed 58 a week. If more assistance is needed because of additional trade, we see no reason why exceptional burdens should be placed upon the old employees, instead of hiring an additional force. We consequently recommend a bill extending the provisions of the 58-hour law for women and minors so as to include the month of December. . . . In the opinion of this committee, present conditions do not justify us in recommending any change at this time in the law restricting the labor of women and minors to 58 hours a week, except as above proposed.

The foregoing recommendations refer to fundamental principles,—that children should be educated, rather than work; that they should not work in the evening; that ignorance is inconsistent with good citizenship; and that legislation should be uniform for all months of the year. Whatever amendments to our factory laws are found wise in the course of experience, in order to enforce these principles, should be cheerfully supported. No obstacles should be placed in the way of perfecting amendments — *Report of Committee on Relations between Employer and Employee, Massachusetts, January, 1904.*

BI-MONTHLY RECORD OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Massachusetts seems particularly free at the present time from labor disturbances of a serious or protracted nature. With the exception of the strike in the printing trades and the lockout of the Atlantic coast seamen, both in Boston, as well as the strike of the weavers at the Dartmouth Mill, New Bedford, the disputes have been of minor importance and of short duration.

Consideration as to the number of strikes and lockouts during January and February, 1904, shows 25, a comparatively small number as against 42 for the corresponding period in 1903, and 44 for the first two months of 1902.

A lessening of the number of strikes and lockouts resorted to may be attributed largely to the organization of employers and the growing disposition on the part of employers and employees to secure joint trade agreements. This is a very noticeable feature of the present industrial situation, and is considered the most effectual method of preventing labor difficulties.

The increasing tendency of employers to have recourse to the courts in time of strikes or lockouts may prove eventually to be a potent factor

in the reduction of these difficulties. Injunctions are being constantly sought and issued, not alone, as will be noted from recent decisions in the Massachusetts courts, against intimidation, picketing, and coercion, but for diverse grievances such as sympathetic strikes and for the prohibition of certain strike benefits.

Of the 25 strikes and lockouts in the Commonwealth during the first two months of 1904, there occurred eight in January and 17 in February. The distribution and numbers of the disputes by cities and towns may be seen in the following statement: Boston and Lynn four each; New Bedford and Worcester two each; and the following one each: Athol, Clinton, Fairhaven, Fall River, Gardner, Haverhill, Melrose, Northampton, Clinton, Revere, Springfield, Uxbridge, and West Springfield. The causes and results of the strikes and lockouts are shown in the following table:

CAUSES.	RESULTS					Total Strikes and Lockouts
	Succeeded	Com- promised	Failed	Pending	Not Stated	
Wages,	-	2	3	6	1	12
Wages and other grievances, . . .	-	-	2	1	-	3
For reinstatement of discharged em- ployee,	-	-	3	-	1	4
Against employment of non-union men,	1	-	-	1	-	2
Other causes,	1	1	-	2	-	4
TOTALS,	2	3	8	10	2	25

As to the duration of strikes and the number of strikers involved, we find that one strike lasted one day and involved 35 workmen; three lasted two days and involved 100 workmen; one involved 175 workmen and lasted five days; one involving 18 employees lasted one week; one lasted 10 days and involved 15. In 10 instances, the disputes were pending at the close of the period, the aggregate number involved at the inauguration of the troubles being about 1,650 workmen. In seven strikes, involving about 450 workmen, places were filled as soon as possible.

In the aggregate, the number of strikes settled during the period, for which both duration and number of strikers were given, involved 345 strikers, the total working time lost being 1,370 days.

As was stated at the beginning of the summary, the most important strikes were those involving the printing trades and the coast seamen of Boston, as well as the cotton operatives at the Dartmouth Mill, New Bedford. As these are pending at the close of our period we shall reserve an extended account of same until the May Bulletin, and give here but a brief statement of each.

On February 1 about 250 compositors of printing establishments in Boston struck to enforce acceptance of the new price list presented by Typographical Union No. 13 to the Typothetæ and firms outside of the

association. The strike affected directly and indirectly about 800 employees; within two days 30 firms had granted demands and compositors had returned to work; but, on the other hand, the number of strikers was being enlarged by additional firms refusing demands and compositors going out. On February 4, the pressmen and press feeders in some establishments went out in sympathy. Subsequently the Typothetæ instituted proceedings for an injunction to prevent a sympathetic strike, and to restrain Typographical Union No. 13 from paying benefits to pressmen and feeders striking in sympathy; a temporary injunction was granted. The Typothetæ later asked for an injunction forbidding the strikers from interfering with their interests by inserting advertisements asking pressmen and feeders to remain out of the city during the strike, advising men not to take strikers' places, etc. The court held this measure in abeyance awaiting the complete findings of the case now being heard.

A lockout was inaugurated on January 28 by the Atlantic Coast Carriers Association and other ship owners upon members of the Atlantic Coast Seamen's Union resisting a reduction of \$5 a month in wages. About 400 sailors were involved; about 150 men in Boston are out at present and about 2,500 men are out all along the coast. The Association asked for an injunction on February 25 restraining the officers and members of Atlantic Coast Seamen's Union from interfering with the business of the Association by force, threats, or intimidation upon any persons seeking their employment, or by promises to pay board, or by persuasion of any nature; the court granted a temporary injunction.

On February 12 about 530 weavers at the Dartmouth Mill, New Bedford, struck because they would not submit to a rule obliging them to wash the floor under their looms, a custom that had been in force for several years. About 100 weavers returned to work the following day; strikers' places have been partially filled, and about one-half the weaving room is running at the close of our period. Weavers Union involved.

PRICES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD IN TORONTO, CANADA, AND MASSACHUSETTS.

In a weekly newspaper published in Toronto, Canada, entitled *The Toiler*, appeared on February 5, 1904, an advertisement of a large grocery house quoting prices for certain articles of food. These prices are given in the first column of figures in the following table. We show in comparison prices obtained in certain of the cities of Massachusetts in stores of the same character and grade as the one in Canada. The local prices were obtained in February.

ARTICLES.	Toronto, Canada	Boston	Fall River	Haverhill	Lynn	New Bedford	Salem
Granulated sugar (9 lbs.), . . .	* \$0.25	\$0.40 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$0.43	\$0.45	\$0.45	\$0.50	\$0.45
Potatoes, best (1 peck),12 $\frac{1}{2}$.30	.35	.30	.20	.30	.32
Butter, fancy dairy (1 lb. prints),19	.25	.30	.30	.30	.32	.32
Butter, choice, large roll (1 lb.),18	-	.27	.26	.24	.26	.24
Cheese, very best (1 lb.),11 $\frac{1}{2}$.17	.14	.16	.15	.18	.16
Tapioca, best (7 lbs.),25	.31 $\frac{1}{2}$.49	.42	.25	.49	.35
Rice, good (5 lbs.),25	.21	.31	.35	.30	.40	.40
Beans, best new (8 lbs.),25	.30	.41	.63	.36	.40	.37
Cornmeal (10 lbs.),25	.23	.28	.25	.30	.30	.30
Graham flour (10 lbs.),25	.25	.25	.30	.25	.35	.30
Ham, best boiled (1 lb.),25	.16	.28	.30	.28	.30	.28
Lard, good white (1 lb.),10	.10	.11	.11	.09	.11	.10
Nutmegs, large (15),10	.08	.15	.15	.15	.14	.15
Malta Vita (2 pkgs.),25	.25	.30	.25	.25	.30	.25
Grape Nuts (2 pkgs.),25	.24	.25	.24	.25	.30	.24
Rolled oats (3 pkgs.),25	.24	.30	.27	.30	.30	.30
Flaked wheat (3 pkgs.),25	.33	.38	.45	.36	.39	.36
Force (2 pkgs.),25	.25	.25	.24	.26	.30	.25
Vim (2 pkgs.),25	.30	.30	.38	.45	.30	.38
Lemons, large juicy (3 doz.),25	.45	.60	.75	.42	.60	.60
Oranges, large sweet (3 doz.),25	.57	1.05	.90	.60	1.20	.75
Starch, silver gloss (3 pkgs.),25	.30	.24	.27	.25	.24	.24
Pearline (6 pkgs.),25	.36	.60	.60	.25	.60	.58
Soap, best laundry (10 bars),25	.37	.40	.43	.45	.45	.50

* In combination with an order including special goods.

INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

The presentation of trade agreements between employers and employees was begun in Labor Bulletin No. 28, November, 1903. The subject will be given like consideration in this and subsequent issues of the Bulletin.

Boston.

CARRIAGE AND CAB DRIVERS.

Employers and Carriage and Cab Drivers Union
No. 126.

1. That 11 hours in 12 shall constitute a day's work, the dinner hour to be as near the middle of the day as possible.

2. That \$2 a day shall be the minimum daily rate of wages.

3. That all overtime, when it is necessary for drivers to work more than 12 hours, shall be paid for at the rate of 25 cents an hour or fraction thereof for each and every hour worked.

4. That five hours be equal to half time or \$1.

5. That members of this union be given work in preference to any other if of equal ability.

6. That no man be discharged for being an active worker in the Union.

7. That any driver suspended on account of accident be paid for time lost, provided it is proved he is not at fault.

8. That no driver be compelled to work for any man who is having trouble with his employes or who is unfair to labor.

9. This schedule to be in force for one year from December, 1903.

TEAM DRIVERS.

International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Local 25,
and the Master Teamsters of Boston.

1. Eleven hours in 12, from six A.M. to six P.M. shall constitute a working-day. Said time shall com-

mence from time of reporting at stable till time of dismissal at night. One hour, on or as near the usual hour 12 to one as possible, be allowed for dinner.

2. All time over and above said time shall be paid for at the rate of 25 cents an hour, or fractional part thereof, except Sundays and legal holidays, which shall be paid for at the rate of double time. (It is understood that men shall care for horses on the mornings of Sundays and holidays and pile sleds on one holiday without extra pay, and that in no case shall the payment for a holiday be deducted. If a man is called upon to work on a holiday, he shall be paid 25 cents an hour additional.)

3. The holidays recognized in this agreement are as follows: Washington's Birthday, Patriots' Day, Memorial Day, June 17th, July 4th, Labor Day, Thanksgiving and Christmas. Under no circumstances shall any member of the organization be required to work on Labor Day. The days herein named shall not be deducted from the regular weekly wages.

4. All outside lumpers shall receive 40 cents an hour, and all time over and above said 11 hours shall be paid for at the rate of time and a half, i.e., 60 cents, fractional parts of an hour to be paid for at the rate of one hour.

5. Regular lumpers shall receive not less than \$14 a working-week. Laborers shall receive \$12 a week. A lumper is one who takes responsibility and directs operations; a laborer is one who has no responsibility and only uses physical energy.

6. The minimum rate of wages a week for drivers shall be as follows:

1-horse light wagons,	\$11
1-horse heavy wagons,	12
2-horse wagons,	14
3-horse teams,	15
4-horse teams,	16
5-horse teams,	17
6-horse teams,	18

Fifty cents extra a day shall be paid for less than a working-week. A substitute shall receive the same pay as the man whose place he fills.

In hiring teamsters in the future, members of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters shall be given the preference, and one member of the organization in each stable shall be allowed to act as representative of the organization, without discrimination.

A strike shall not be considered except as herein named. A strike ordered by the International Brotherhood of Teamsters shall not be an annulment of this agreement, or a violation of the contract.

Should a strike be ordered by the I. B. of T. as above, and a settlement and termination be not agreed to by both parties, the question shall be submitted to a committee of Employers and Employees, a third party to be chosen by the Employers and Employees.

This agreement shall take effect Jan. 10, 1904, and continue in force for one year, until Jan. 10, 1905.

THEATRICAL STAGE EMPLOYEES.

Managers of Four Local Theatres and International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees.

We the undersigned agree to abide by the schedule as presented, the same to go into effect on date of November 1, 1903, and to remain in force for the term of five years. In case of any disagreement arising during this period, the men working in the theatres must remain at work and the case be submitted to International Secretary-Treasurer, or his successor in office, for final adjudication.

1. *Day Work.* That \$2.50 a day be paid, eight hours to constitute a day's work.

2. *Performances.* That \$1.50 each for stage hands be paid.

3. *Calcium, and Electric Calcium Operators.* That they be paid \$1 a performance.

4. *Rehearsals.* That \$1.50 be paid for a four-hour rehearsal. All rehearsals over four hours shall be paid at the rate of overtime.

5. *Sunday Work.* Time at the rate of time and one-half.

6. *All Overtime.* Shall be at the rate of 50 cents an hour.

7. The union will recognize the neutrality of the stage carpenter, property man and electrician. All others in their employ (excepting apprentices, meaning assistant property boys, electricians, or gas man's assistant or stage clearers) must be members of Boston Local No. 11, International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees. If in the future the stage carpenter, property man or electrician desire to join the union he shall be taken in under the same conditions as specified in Sec. 11, namely, an initiation fee of \$5.

8. A complete list of the unemployed members shall be furnished at any time upon the written request of the managers, and shall be available at all times for the selection of such men as the management may desire to employ; whenever the union is unable to supply the necessary capable men, the management have the right to place non-members at work temporarily and said non-members shall be allowed to work out the week for which they were engaged.

9. All men engaged for any production, if notified

after either the first or second performance to this effect, may be laid off by the management, or after the first week of any running piece, at one week's notice.

10. All men employed upon the stage shall assist each other in so far as it may not interfere with the general discipline of the theatre. This not to mean that property boys, electrician assistants or light operators be thus used to save the expense of a stage hand.

11. That the personal guarantee of the management shall entitle any man now in their employ to be accepted into membership of the union upon a nominal initiation fee of \$5.

12. One hour will be allowed by Local Union No. 11 to put the show out after the curtain falls on the last act of any final performance.

13. The management will not allow any member of Local No. 11 to work upon his stage who is under suspension by the Union for cause.

14. Any stage employee who shall assign his salary to any outside party or who shall subject himself to a garnishee process will be forthwith discharged.

15. No member of the union shall be admitted to any stage except when employed thereon.

16. This agreement to apply to all theatres in Boston now managed by said managers or any that may come under their management during the five years here mentioned.

GARMENT WORKERS.

Local Union No. 1 of the United Garment Workers of America and Employers.

Local Union No. 1, in consideration of \$1 from employer, agrees to furnish employer with all help necessary to perform labor on men's and boys' garments manufactured by employer within 24 hours after the receipt of a written demand for same, provided that union has such help at its command. All help so furnished shall work nine hours each day and no more at such work, and on such machines as shall be designated by the union, excepting on holidays and in cases of sickness or any other unavoidable detention.

Nine hours shall constitute a day's work; such labor to be performed between 7.30 A.M. and 5.30 P.M., except on holidays when no work shall be required or performed. Machinery used by employer shall not start before 7.30 A.M. and shall stop promptly at 5.30 P.M. No work shall be done by any of said employees excepting during the above hours, the kind of labor contracted for and on such machinery as shall be designated by the employee and approved by the union at the date of his or her employment.

If any workman supplied by the union is discharged by the employer cause satisfactory to the union for such discharge shall be reported and furnished by the employer. All labor performed in shop shall be upon garments classified as Class — by the union, and all labor shall be performed and paid for by the piece according to the prices contained in the schedule hereto attached, excepting only when employees are hired by the week when the price for weekly work as contained in schedule shall be the minimum price paid. Each employee shall be paid in full at the end of each week.

All persons employed in shop shall be members in good standing of United Garment Workers of America, local Union No. 1.

The employer shall employ no apprentice or other person not furnished by the union, in connection with his said business, and all persons other than skilled labor shall be known and called apprentices and shall receive pay as such. They shall be directed and taught by and be under the supervision of the skilled labor employed by such employer.

Any person who may be delegated by the union will be allowed to enter any premises occupied by employer, and employer will in no way or manner interfere with such representative in the performance of his duties.

Employer agrees in event of a breach in the whole or part of any of the foregoing agreement on his part to be kept and performed (continued for 48 hours), he will pay to the union as liquidated damages for such breach the sum of \$50 for each machine contained in his establishment at the signing of this agreement, which number is mutually agreed to be — machines. If employer should default in or neglect to make such payment, the same may be recovered as liquidated damages by union in an action at law, it being mutually understood and agreed that said amount is the damage which union will sustain by any breach thereof.

The employer shall furnish to the Union a bond or mortgage in a sum equal to \$50 for each machine operated by him to satisfy any claim which may accrue under the terms and conditions of this agreement.

This agreement to be and remain in force up to and including July 31, 1904.

CIGAR BOX MAKERS.

Cigar Box Manufacturers and Amalgamated Woodworkers International Union, Local No. 201.

Cigar box manufacturers shall have full control of hiring and discharging their own help, but agree to hire none but members of the Amalgamated Woodworkers International Union who are in good standing, and who are able to do the grade of work called for, or workmen who upon being hired by them shall make application for membership in said union, or signify their intention to do so, on or before the second week of their employment.

Nine hours shall constitute a day's work without any reduction of wages; during the months of June, July, and August the work shall cease Saturday at 1 P.M. In case of necessity, employees to work on Saturday afternoon, the employers to be governed by the overtime clause.

All overtime to be paid for at the rate of time and one-half; this includes work on legal holidays.

No work shall be performed upon Labor Day.

Minimum wages shall be as follows: Fitters, cross cutter, rip sawyer, planer and facing machine, \$12; nailing machine \$10; top printers, \$13.

Any workmen now receiving more than the above wages shall not be subjected to a reduction by the action of this scale.

If an employee is late, reduction shall be made only for the time he loses.

In case of a dispute arising, two representatives from the employer and two from the employees, appointed by the union, shall endeavor to make a satisfactory settlement; in case no satisfactory settlement can be made by this method, then the dispute shall be referred to the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration within a reasonable time, and the decision of said Board shall be final. During the time that the attempted settlement is under consideration, there shall be no strike or lockout.

Union No. 201 grants the use of the Amalgamated Woodworkers International Union label to employers, to be used as follows: (1) On any boxes made by them for firms who are recognized by the International Cigar Makers Union of America, also Local 97 of Boston. (2) Not on boxes for firms that do not make union-made cigars. (3) That they are under no obligation to use it on any box, but may supply orders received by them from any quarter, whether

from firms that employ union labor or from those that employ non-union labor.

Employer may employ two apprentices in the nailing department, each to serve a term of two years, at the following rate of wages: First year, not less than \$6 a week; second year, not less than \$8 a week. Two apprentices may be employed in the mill department, each to serve a term of two years at the following rate of wages: First year, \$8 a week; second year, \$10 a week. One apprentice to be employed in the wood-printing department, who shall serve a term of three years at the following rate of wages: First year, \$7 a week; second year, \$9 a week; third year, \$12 a week. Apprentices over 16 years of age shall be obliged to carry the apprenticeship card of the Amalgamated Woodworkers Union Local 201 of Boston.

Employer may hire boys for pulling nails, sandpapering edges of boxes and carrying boxes from part to part of the factory.

Terms of this agreement shall remain in full force for one year from Sept. 23, 1903; if any change is desired by either party, the proposed change shall be submitted in writing to the other 30 days prior to the expiration of this agreement; the parties hereto shall meet to consider terms for a new agreement and for such further time as the parties may mutually agree upon.

Lawrence.

BOTTLERS AND DRIVERS.

Local Bottling Proprietors and Local Union No. 119 of the United Brewery Workmen of the United States.

1. None but members of Local Union No. 119 of the United Brewery Workmen shall be employed in bottling establishments, whether working day or night. Boys under 19 not included in this contract.

2. Ten hours shall constitute a day's work, except on Saturdays and the eve of legal holidays.

3. When requested to work overtime no man shall refuse. For Sundays or legal holidays they shall receive pay for double time.

4. Drivers of double teams and their strikers shall not be required to work over 10 hours a day; all overtime shall be paid for at the rate of 25 cents an hour, except on Saturday and the eve of legal holidays when two hours shall be allowed to place beer wherever necessary.

5. In case of prolonged illness of any employee he shall be entitled to his former position after regaining his health.

6. In case of slack business as many men as necessary may be laid off alternately; but not longer than one week at a time, all men taking their turn as far as possible.

7. Extra help may be employed for one week preceding each legal holiday, said help not to be considered in this contract.

8. No man shall be discharged without sufficient reason from the employer, said reason to be given on the demand of the discharged employee.

9. No help shall be hired on the recommendation of a customer.

10. Teamsters or strikers handling or delivering bottled goods shall belong to Local Union No. 119 of the United Brewery Workmen.

11. Foremen employed in bottling establishments shall not do work belonging to members of this union.

12. Minimum weekly scale of wages:

Drivers of double teams, . . .	\$14
Single teamsters,	12
Strikers,	12
Machine operators,	11
Bottlers,	11
Stablemen,	12

13. Sixty-three hours shall constitute a week's work for stablemen, all overtime to be paid for at the rate of 20 cents an hour.

14. Men employed in bottling departments shall receive not less than \$10 a week. Overtime shall be charged by the rate an hour.

15. No present pay shall be reduced.

16. This contract is to remain in force until May 1, 1903, and to continue annually, unless notice is given 30 days before the first day of May in each year by either party.

Lynn.

BARTENDERS.

Employers and Local No. 86 of Bartenders International League of America.

1. No bartender to be paid less than \$15 a week.

2. No bartender to be required to work more than

60 hours a week, the arrangement of said hours to be such as the interests of the business demand.

3. All bartenders to be allowed an afternoon and evening off each week and not to be required to report for work said afternoon or evening except in cases of emergency.

4. No bartender to be required to enter employer's premises on Sundays or holidays for the purpose of cleaning same.

It is earnestly requested that all employers furnish white coats and aprons to the bartenders.

Agreement to be in force and not subject to change from February 1, 1903, until May 1, 1904.

LABOR LEGISLATION IN OTHER STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.*

New Jersey.

Chap. 16. *Pensioning of School Teachers.*

Any school teacher in this State, who shall have served as such in any school district of this State for 40 years consecutively, shall, upon application to the board having charge of the schools in such district, be voluntarily retired from active duty upon half pay; and it shall be the duty of the body having charge of the finances of said district to provide for such payment monthly. *Approved March 5, 1903.*

Chap. 60. *Pay or Salary of Officers and Other Employees of Paid Fire Departments.*

1. It shall be lawful for the board or body having charge and control of the fire department of any first class city of this State wherein the annual pay or salaries of all the officers and employees of said fire department are now regulated by law, with the concurrence of the mayor of such city and of the board, body or authority having charge of the finances in such city, to fix and determine the annual pay or salaries of said officers and employees as hereinafter provided.

2. To the chief engineer, \$3,000; to the assistant engineer, \$2,500; to battalion chiefs or district engineers, \$2,000; to the clerk of the board or body having control of the fire department, \$2,200; to the superintendent of telegraph, \$2,200; to the inspectors of horses, \$1,000; to the department doctor or medical examiner, \$700.

3. To captains or foremen of companies, engineers, stokers, drivers, tillermen, hosemen, truckmen, and telegraph linemen, an amount equal to the annual pay or salary now fixed by law and an increase of 15 per centum thereof; *provided, however,* that only one-third of the increase provided by this section shall be added for the first year after this act becomes operative, two-thirds shall be added for the second year after this act becomes operative, and for the third year after this act becomes operative and thereafter the total increase provided shall be added to the annual pay or salary. *Approved March 24, 1903.*

Chap. 64. *Manufacture of Flour, Etc.*

A Supplement to an act entitled "An act to regulate the manufacture of flour and meal food products," approved April sixteenth, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-six.

5. There shall be added to the said act a new section, to be known as section ten, which shall read as follows:

10. No person under the age of 18 years shall be employed, or required, permitted or suffered to work, in a biscuit, bread or cake bakery between the hours of seven o'clock in the afternoon and seven o'clock in the forenoon. *Approved March 24, 1903.*

Chap. 66. *Factory Inspector.*

Supplement to an act approved March 5, 1883.

1. The factory and workshop inspector appointed under the provisions of the act to which this act is a supplement shall hereafter be appointed by the governor, and shall be answerable to the governor for the faithful discharge of his duties.

2. For any neglect or failure to perform his duties, the factory or workshop inspector shall be subject to immediate suspension by the governor and loss of pay for such time as the governor may think proper; and he may also be discharged by the governor, in his discretion, after being given an opportunity to make a statement and present evidence in his defense, and if so discharged, the term of said inspector shall end with the date on which he is discharged.

3. This act shall take effect September first. *Approved March 25, 1903.*

Chap. 201. *Amendment to Act Limiting Employment of Children and Women.*

1. Section one of the act to which this is amendatory (approved March 5, 1883) is hereby amended to read as follows:

1. No child under the age of 14 years shall be employed in any factory, workshop, mine or establishment where the manufacture of any goods whatever is carried on.

* Presentation was started in Labor Bulletin No. 28 and will be continued indefinitely.

2. Section two of the act to which this is amendatory is hereby repealed. *Approved April 8, 1903.*

Chap. 212. *Pensioning of Firemen.*

Sections 1 and 2 of an act approved April 23, 1897, amended so as to read as follows:

1. In all cities of the State having a paid fire department it shall be lawful for the municipal board having charge of said fire department to retire from service any officer or man permanently employed in such department whose duty requires active service in the extinguishment of fires who shall have become or shall hereafter become incapacitated, either mentally or physically, for the performance of such duty, whenever such incapacity is or shall be the result of injury received or sickness contracted while on duty, either in the performance or attempted performance of any duty connected with employment in such fire department, or in the performance or attempted performance of any extra or special duty upon which such officer or man may be detailed; the person retired shall receive an annual pension of an amount equal to one-half of the salary received by him at the time of such retirement.

2. If any officer or man permanently employed in any fire department in any such city shall be fatally injured while on duty, either in the performance or attempted performance of any duty connected with employment in such fire department, or in the performance or attempted performance of any extra or special duty, upon which such officer or man may be detailed, such municipal board shall allow to the widow, if any there be, or, if there be no widow, then to the dependent parent or parents of such officer or man permanently employed in such fire department, an annual pension equal to one-half of the salary received by such officer or man at the time of his death, to be paid to such widow during her widowhood, or, if there be no widow, to be paid to such dependent parent or parents as long as such parent or parents remain dependent, and where the officer or man is the only support of his parent; if such officer or man shall not leave a widow or parent, but shall leave a child or children, such pension shall be applied, under the direction of the mayor of such city, to the support of such child or children until they have attained the age of 16 years. *Approved April 8, 1903.*

Chap. 257. *Railroad — Employees — Strikes. (Revision of 1903.)*

61. Any employee of any railroad company, who shall wilfully or negligently disregard and disobey any rule, regulation or published order of the company in relation to the running of trains, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor;

62. If any railroad employee on any railroad within this State engaged in any strike or with a view to incite others to such strike, or in furtherance of any combination or preconcert with any other person to bring about a strike, shall abandon the engine in his charge when attached to a train at any place other than the schedule or otherwise appointed destination of such train, or shall refuse or neglect to continue to discharge his duty, or to proceed with such train to the place of destination aforesaid; or if any railroad employee within this State, for the purpose of furthering the object of or lending aid to any strike organized or attempted to be maintained on any other railroad, either within or without the State, shall refuse or neglect in the course of his employment to aid in the movement over and upon the tracks of the company employing him of the cars of such other

railroad company received therefrom in the course of transit, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than one hundred nor more than five hundred dollars, and may also be imprisoned for a term not exceeding six months, at the discretion of the court.

63. If any person, in aid or furtherance of the objects of any strike upon any railroad, shall interfere with, molest or obstruct any locomotive engineer or other railroad employee engaged in the discharge or performance of his duty as such, or shall obstruct any railroad track within this State, or shall injure or destroy the rolling stock or other property of any railroad company, or shall take possession of or remove any such property, or shall prevent or attempt to prevent the use thereof by such company or its employees, or shall by offer of recompense induce any employee of any railroad company within this State to leave the service of such company while in transit, every such person offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not exceeding five hundred dollars, and may also be imprisoned not more than one year, at the discretion of the court. *Approved April 14, 1903.*

Pennsylvania.

No. 50. *Deputy Factory Inspectors.*

Amends section 15, Act of May 29, 1901, so that it reads as follows:

Section 15. The Factory Inspector, in order to more effectually carry out the provisions of the factory, bake-shop, sweat-shop, and fire-escape laws, is hereby authorized to appoint *thirty-seven* (37) deputy factory inspectors, five of whom shall be women, at a salary of twelve hundred dollars per year; a chief clerk for the department, at a salary of sixteen hundred dollars per year; *two* assistant clerks, one of whom shall be a skilled stenographer, at a salary of *fourteen hundred* dollars per year, each; and a messenger, at a salary of *nine* hundred dollars per year. *Approved March 20, 1903.*

No. 85. *Insignia of Trades Unions.*

Section 1. That any person who shall wilfully wear any insignia or button of any association, society, or trade's union, or use the same to obtain aid or assistance, within this State, unless he shall be entitled to use or wear the same under the constitution and by-laws, rules and regulations, of such organizations, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined not to exceed \$100, and in default of payment committed to jail for a period not to exceed 60 days. *Approved March 27, 1903.*

No. 96. *Trade Union Labels.*

Amends sections 2 and 3, Act of Mar. 21, 1895, as amended by Act of May 2, 1901, so as to read as follows:

Section 2. Any such association or union, having adopted any such label, symbol, trade-mark or private stamp, may register the same in the office of the Secretary of the Commonwealth, by filing a description or fac-simile thereof: Provided, That notice of the intention of such filing shall be published for three weeks in two newspapers of general circulation, once a week. *Such Secretary shall issue so many certificates of such registration as the party filing the same may require, upon the payment of a fee of one dollar for such certificate.* In all prosecutions under this act, and in all proceedings at law or equity, any such certificates shall be prima facie evidence that *all the requirements of law to entitle such label, trade-mark,*

symbol or private stamp to registration, have been complied with, and that the same had been duly adopted by the association or union on whose behalf the same was filed. No label, symbol, trade-mark or private stamp shall be admitted to registration which may be readily mistaken for one already registered.

Section 3. And be it enacted that any person or persons counterfeiting or imitating, or using or displaying, or selling or offering for sale, a counterfeit or imitation of any such trade-mark . . . or using any original or bona fide trade-mark . . . *without authority from the association or union owning, controlling or having jurisdiction over the same, or after the license or authority to use the same has been rescinded or revoked by the association or union owning, controlling or having jurisdiction over the same; and any person or persons who shall use any such trade-mark . . . by placing the same on goods and wares which are not the product of members of such association or union; and any person or persons who shall knowingly sell or offer for sale any goods or wares on which such label, symbol or trade-mark, or private stamp, shall be so wrongfully placed; shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than \$500 and not more than \$1,000, or by imprisonment for a term not less than one year and not more than five years, or either, or both, in the discretion of the court. Approved April 3, 1903.*

No. 137. *Department of Mines Created.*

A Department of Mines is established in Pennsylvania which shall have the supervision of the execution of the mining laws, and the care and publication of the annual reports of the inspectors of coal mines and any and all other mines that may come under the provisions of the mining laws.

The Chief of the Department of Mines shall be a competent person with at least 10 years' practical experience as a miner and the qualifications of the present mine inspectors. It shall be the duty of the Chief to devote the whole of his time to the duties of his office, and to see that the mining laws are faithfully executed; he has authority to enter, inspect, and examine any mine or colliery within the State, and the works and machinery connected therewith, and to give such aid and instruction to mine inspectors as he may deem best calculated to protect the health and promote the safety of all persons employed in and about the mines.

The act is very full in provisions and citations, embodying 12 sections. *Approved April 14, 1903.*

No. 184. *Miners' Home for Helpless Employees.*

Section 1. That a board of five citizens of the State, two of whom shall be selected from the anthracite regions, one from the employer and one from the employee class; two from the bituminous regions, one from the employer and one from the employee class, and one well known sociologist, shall be named by the governor to act as trustees for the following purposes:

Section 2. That the said trustees are empowered, in the name of the Miners' Home of Pennsylvania, to purchase land, and erect building thereon for the indigent and aged people who have been employed in, around and about the mines, and for the wives of such people, and to do all necessary acts and things that may be essential in establishing a Home, within the intent of this legislation.

Section 3. That for the purposes of this Home, it shall be lawful for the said trustees to enter into contracts with the employers operating coal mines in Pennsylvania, and the employees in, around and about

the coal mines, for the purpose of raising revenue to establish and maintain such Home or Homes.

Section 4. That all moneys raised by reason of these contracts are to be paid into the State Treasury, and there held as a special fund, subject to the orders of the trustees.

Section 5. That after a consensus of opinion is ascertained, by and through the representatives of the laboring people and the trustees, as to what amount of money it is advisable that each class of laborers in, around and about the coal mines shall contribute to maintain this Miners' Home or Homes, then the trustees of such Home or Homes shall have blanks prepared for the said miners and others working around the coal mines to sign, whereby said employee shall assent to the amount to be collected from his earnings by the said employer and forwarded to the State Treasurer.

Section 6. That after it is determined between the representatives of the employers and the trustees what amount will be contributed for each ton of coal mined and marketed, then blanks for all contracts between the trustees and the employers are to be furnished to the employers, whereby the employers, for a period of at least one year, are to contract with the trustees that they will send to the State Treasurer, quarterly, the amount that is agreed upon shall be charged on each ton of coal, for the Miners' Home or Homes, and each succeeding year such amount shall be determined in the same way, and new contracts made.

Section 7. That only those are eligible to this Home who are, first, citizens of the State, and, second, who have worked in, around and about the coal mines of Pennsylvania for a period of at least twenty-five years, and have reached the age of sixty years; unless, (a) an employee has been so seriously injured in, around and about the mines as to be physically incapacitated for further labor, in which event application can be made in writing, setting forth his physical condition, and such application shall be sent to the secretary or one of the trustees of the said Home; then the said trustees shall authorize the physician of the Miners' Home, and one other, to ascertain the condition of the said applicant; and if it is proven that the injury has incapacitated said applicant, and it is so certified by the said examining physicians, then the certificate shall admit him into the Home; or, unless, (b) an employee has become a victim of what is commonly called "miner's asthma;" then such person can apply to the secretary or one of the trustees of the said Home for admision into the said Home because of such affliction; whereupon the trustees shall name a Home physician, and one other, to examine such applicant; and if it is found that such applicant is suffering from said miner's asthma, in such a way as to physically incapacitate him from earning his livelihood in the mines, or otherwise, and the physicians so certify, then such certificate shall admit him into the Home: Provided, That no insane, demented or degenerate person shall be admitted into the said Home, and where they are already admitted and become insane, demented or degenerate, a board of inquiry, composed of two physicians connected with State sanitariums, together with the Home physician, shall act upon such case or cases; and in all such case or cases, on petition of the trustees to the Governor, he, the Governor, shall then designate what other two physicians from the State sanitariums shall act with the Home physician as the said examining board. And when such board shall determine that such member of the Home is either insane, demented, or degenerate, then such member, upon the report of

the board, shall be sent to some State institution, as is best suited for his or her affliction.

Section 8. That the wives of all the men who are eligible to this Home, by reason of the provisions of section seven, and who have attained the age of fifty-five years, are eligible to live in this Home.

Section 9. That each person, upon entering the said Home, shall make an assignment to the said trustees of all his or her personal and real estate, with power in the said trustees to collect rents, issues and profits of all his or her estate; and the said trustees and their successors shall hold said property for the following uses and purposes: First, the rents, issues and profits to be turned into the State Treasury for the common fund of the Home or Homes; second, if any inmate of the Home desires to sever his or her connection with the said Home, he or she can make application of the said trustees, and then at the end of six months, if the application is not withdrawn, the trustees shall re-convey to the said inmate the property conveyed to the trustees. If, though, the said inmate dies within the said six months, then the property is to remain the common property of the Home. After the death of any inmate, the trustees shall convert all such person's real and personal property into money and turn the same into the State Treasury as part of the Miners' Home fund: Provided, That \$125 of such money or property as came through any particular inmate's estate shall be used for his or her burial, in any such manner as such inmate may have directed, or as the nearest of kin suggested in the event the deceased has not given directions.

Section 10. That all inmates of this Home may be as well occupied as circumstances will permit, the trustees are directed to buy sufficient lands, from time to time, to be farmed by such inmates, and if there is more than enough farm-produce raised for use at the Home, then the surplus is to be sold at market prices, and this profit is to be used to the best advantage to get such extras or necessities, either in the way of apparel, edibles or home comforts, as is deemed best by the trustees. *Approved April 22, 1903.*

No. 187. *Labor Contracts.*

Amends section 6, Act of June 4, 1901, so as to read as follows:

Section 6. Where labor or materials are furnished for any structure or other improvement for purely public purposes, in lieu of the lien given by this act, any sub-contractor who has furnished labor or materials thereto may give a written and duly sworn notice to the Commonwealth, or any division or subdivision thereof, or any purely public agency thereunder, being the owner of the structure or other improvement, setting forth the facts which would have entitled him to a lien as against the structure or other improvement of a private owner; whereupon, unless such claim be paid by the contractor, or adequate security be given or have been given to protect all such claimants, the Commonwealth or the division or subdivision thereof, or purely public agency thereunder, shall pay the balance actually due the contractor into the court of common pleas of the county in which the structure or other improvement, or the principal part thereof, is situate, for distribution to such parties as would be entitled thereto were it paid into court in the case of a private owner; and the Commonwealth hereby does, and any division or sub-division thereof, or any purely public agency thereunder, may, require that any contract for public work shall, as a condition precedent to its award, provide for approved security to be entered by the contractor to protect all such parties. If a dispute arises as to the balance actually

due, the amount admitted shall be paid into court, and a suit brought to recover the disputed part, in the name of the contractor to the use of the parties interested, and any amount recovered shall be distributed as above set forth. *Approved April 22, 1903.*

No. 266. *Coal Mines.*

Amends art. 9, sect. 1, Act of June 2, 1891, and sect. 17, Act of June 30, 1885, so as to read as follows:

No boy under the age of 16 years, and no woman or girl of any age, shall be employed or permitted to be in any mine for the purpose of employment therein; nor shall a boy under the age of 14 years, or a woman or girl of any age, be employed or permitted to be in or about the outside structures or workings of a colliery for the purpose of employment; but it is provided, however, that this prohibition shall not affect the employment of a boy or female, of suitable age, in an office or in the performance of clerical work at a colliery. *Approved May 13, 1903.*

No. 348. *Pennsylvania Working Home for Blind Men.*

Section 1. That the sum of \$35,000, for the two fiscal years beginning June 1, 1903, is hereby specifically appropriated to the Pennsylvania Working Home for Blind Men, inhabitants of the State, for their instruction, maintenance, and employment in handicraft, and to aid in the necessary expenses of the same. *Approved May 15, 1903.*

FOREIGN LEGISLATION.

Belgium.

During 1902, the following legislation was enacted in Belgium:

June 17. Royal order relative to statements and declarations to be made by the medical inspector in accordance with regulations for dangerous, unhealthy, or inconvenient establishments.

July 25. Royal order modifying the conditions under which the annual allowances of 65 francs (\$13) provided for by the old age pension law may be granted.

November 17. Royal order modifying the order of December 31, 1894, by providing for medical examination once each month, at the expense of the employer, of all persons employed in the manufacture of ceruse and other lead products; the order provides for the removal, temporarily or permanently as the case may demand, of persons affected by lead poisoning.

November 17. Royal order modifying the order of March 25, 1890, by providing for medical examination, monthly, at the expense of the employer, of all persons employed in the manufacture of lucifer matches or other products requiring the use of white phosphorus or phosphoric paste, and providing also for temporary or permanent discharge, according to circumstances, of persons whose health has been injured by the work.

December 30. Royal order concerning the execution of article nine of the law of May 10, 1900, on old age pensions and the annual allowance of 65 francs (\$13). To be eligible to receive the allowance, a working man or woman must be a Belgian citizen; must have had a residence in Belgium for at least a year previous to January 1 of the year for which the grant is asked; must be 65 years of age, or over; and must be in need. All men and women who work with their hands for wages are considered working men and women and former workmen are included in the provisions; the wife or widow of a workman is also con-

sidered eligible for the pension, although she may not actually have worked for wages. Persons, who, under any circumstances, have lodging, board, and clothing provided; prisoners, and inmates of reformatories and houses of correction are not considered as needy; and all persons keeping liquor saloons are judged not to be in need until the contrary has been duly proven. The order also prescribes the form of blanks and certificates to be issued in making applications, and the method of procedure.

Royal orders issued during 1902 classifying dangerous, unhealthful, or incommensurable establishments:

Class I, order of April 10. Manufacture of vitreous silicates and liquid sodium and potassium;

Class II, order of July 22. Kiln drying cones of resinous trees;

Class I, order of September 6. Manufacture of sulphide of barium by reduction of sulphate and manufacture of salts of barium by the action of acids on sulphide. — *Annuaire de la Legislation du Travail*, 1902. Brussels, 1903.

Canada.

Railway Labor Disputes Act.

An Act passed by the Legislature of the Dominion of Canada, and which received assent on the 10th July, 1903, makes provision for the settlement of differences between railway employees and their employers. The Act applies to any dispute, disagreement, or dissension between any company or Government owning or operating a railway (whether under the jurisdiction of the Parliament of Canada or of the Legislature of any province), which, in the opinion of the Minister of Labor, may have caused or may cause a lock-out or strike on a railway, or which has interfered or may interfere with the proper and efficient transportation of mails, passengers, or freight, or the safety of persons employed upon any car or train.

For the purpose of settling such disputes the Act provides for the establishment of (a) Committees of Conciliation, Mediation, and Investigation; and of (b) Boards of Arbitrators, to be constituted in the following manner:—

3. Whenever a difference exists between any railway employers and railway employees, and it appears to the Minister that the parties thereto are unable satisfactorily to adjust the same, and that by reason of such difference remaining unadjusted a railway lock-out or strike has been or is likely to be caused, or the regular and safe transportation of mails, passengers, or freight has been or may be interrupted, or the safety of any person employed on a railway train or car has been or is likely to be endangered, the Minister may, either on the application of any party to the difference or on the application of the Corporation of any municipality directly affected by the difference, or of his own motion, cause inquiry to be made into the same and the cause thereof, and for that purpose may, under his hand and seal of office, establish a Committee of Conciliation, Mediation, and Investigation, to be composed of three persons to be named—one by the railway employers, and one by the railway employees (parties to the difference), and the third by the two so named or by the parties to the difference in case they cannot agree. The Minister shall in writing notify each party to name a member of said committee, stating in such notice a time, not being later than five days after the receipt of such notice, within which this is to be done, and if either party within such time, or any extension thereof that the Minister on cause shown may grant, refuse or fail to name a member of said committee the Minister or

the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, as the case may be, as hereinafter provided may appoint one in the place of the party so refusing or in default; and if the members of said committee so chosen fail to select a third member, the Minister or the Lieutenant Governor in Council, as the case may be, may make such selection.

4. It shall be the duty of the Conciliation Committee to endeavor by conciliation and mediation to assist in bringing about an amicable settlement of the difference to the satisfaction of both parties, and to report its proceedings to the Minister.

5. In case the Conciliation Committee is unable to effect an amicable settlement by conciliation or mediation, the Minister may refer the difference to arbitration under the provisions of this Act

(a.) If acceptable to both parties, the Conciliation Committee may act as a Board of Arbitrators.

(b.) In case of objection by either party to its representative on the Conciliation Committee acting as a member of the Board of Arbitrators, or to the chairman of said Conciliation Committee being a member of the Board of Arbitrators, new representatives on the Board of Arbitrators shall be appointed in place of the member or members of the Conciliation Committee objected to, in like manner as the original members of the Conciliation Committee were appointed.

The Board of Arbitrators so chosen shall be established by the Minister under his hand and seal of office.

8. The third member of the said committee or Board shall be the chairman.

9. In case of arbitration pursuant to the provision hereinbefore contained, the findings and recommendations of the majority shall be those of the Board. In case of the absence of any one arbitrator from a meeting of the Board the other two arbitrators shall not proceed unless it be shown that the third arbitrator has been notified of the meeting in ample time to admit of his attendance.

10. Forthwith after the appointment of the Board the chairman shall promptly convene the same, and the Board shall in such manner as it thinks advisable make thorough, careful, and expeditious inquiry into all the facts and circumstances connected with the difference and the cause thereof, and shall consider what would be reasonable and proper to be done by both or either of the parties with a view of putting an end to the difference and to preventing its recurrence, and shall with all reasonable speed make to the Minister a written report setting forth the various proceedings and steps taken by the Board for the purpose of fully and correctly ascertaining all the facts and circumstances, and also setting forth said facts and circumstances, and its finding therefrom, including the cause of the difference and the Board's recommendations with a view to its removal and the prevention of its recurrence.

11. The Minister shall forthwith cause the report to be filed in the office of the Department, and a copy thereof to be sent free of charge to each party to the difference, and to any municipal corporation as aforesaid, and to the representative of any newspaper published in Canada who may apply therefor; any other person shall be entitled to a copy on payment of the actual cost thereof.

12. For the information of Parliament and the public the report shall without delay be published in the *Labor Gazette*, and be included in the annual report of the Department of Labor to the Governor-General.

A Board of Arbitrators will have power to summon witnesses and take sworn evidence, and to compel production of documents, which may be inspected by the Board, and also by such of the parties as the Board

allows, but the information obtained therefrom shall not be made public. Witnesses summoned to appear before the Board are to be carried free by railway when proceeding to and from the place of meeting of the Board. Each member of a Committee of Conciliation or a Board of Arbitrators is to receive his traveling expenses and a fee of 10 dollars (£2 1s. 8d.) per day; the remuneration of the chairman, however, is to be such sum as the Governor in Council deems reasonable. The Government also provides all clerical assistance required.

France.

During 1902, the following legislation was enacted in France:

March 21. Decree providing that contracts for public works, undertaken in the name of the departments, in Algeria must stipulate that all workmen and employees shall be allowed one day of rest in each week; that foreign labor shall be employed only in the proportion fixed by the prefect or the general in command of the division, according to the nature of the work and the locality; that the hours of labor in a day, for each class of workmen, shall be governed by the custom of the section; in cases of absolute necessity the contractor may disregard these clauses; and for extra hours of labor extra pay shall be received at rates to be determined by conditions of contract; departments, in awarding contracts, must stipulate that the contractor shall not let out any part of the work to a sub-contractor, without obtaining special authorization from the administration and agreeing to be personally responsible for the work.

March 21. Decree providing essentially the same conditions as the foregoing for contracts on public works undertaken in the name of the State or of Algeria.

March 21. Decree providing for the protection of the health of persons employed, in Algeria, in shops and factories of all kinds and in their various dependencies; restrictions do not apply to mines and quarries except with regard to employment of children; establishments where only the members of a family are employed under the authority of the father, or mother, or guardian are exempt from the provisions unless steam or mechanical motors are used or the work done is classified as dangerous or unhealthful; in the enterprises enumerated no children of French or other European nationality under 13 years of age may be employed or even admitted to the factory, except children holding primary school certificates who may be employed at 12 years; employees under 18 years must not be kept at work more than 10½ hours in one day, the day's work to be reduced to 10 hours after March 31, 1904; they must not work more than six days in a week nor on legal holidays; for employees — French or other European — under 18 years of age the employer must keep a register showing the name and the date of entering and leaving the shop, and, when required, the birth record; such registers need not be kept if no more than 20 workmen are employed or if mechanical motors are not used; shops must be kept in proper sanitary condition and every precaution taken to prevent accidents to employees from the machinery; no woman or minor shall be allowed to oil, clean, or repair machinery in motion; children under 16 years of age shall not be employed to work treadles, to turn horizontal wheels or, for more than half a day, to turn vertical wheels; nor shall they be employed upon circular or band saws, or with scissors or other sharp bladed tools, or in working steam valves, or to lift or carry heavy burdens. Employment of women or minors in the manufacture of books, pictures, or other similar articles classed as immoral under the penal code is forbidden, and no boy under 16 years

or minor girl may be employed in any capacity in shops whose products tend to injure the morals, even though the articles do not fall within the application of the penal code. The decree provides for devices to be used for the protection of employees on dangerous work, for reports to be made to the authorities in case of accident, and for methods of ventilation and sanitation of shops and factories. All regulations enumerated relating to employment of children must be enforced by engineers and controllers of mines under the authority of the governor-general of Algeria. Fines are provided for infractions. The decree took effect three months after its promulgation.

March 21. Decree providing that on public works undertaken in the name of the communes and of charitable institutions, in Algeria, one day of rest in seven must be allowed for all workmen; foreigners may be employed only in the proportion determined by decision of the prefect or the general commanding the division; the day's work must be limited to the number of hours customary in the section for each class of workers; no contractor shall sublet his work without special permit from the administration and he must remain personally responsible in every respect.

March 22. Law modifying eight articles of the law of April 9, 1898, concerning responsibility for accidents to workmen in the performance of their duties, by prescribing methods for better protection of victims, broadening the range of indemnities, and increasing the time within which declarations of accidents are valid; an employer must declare an accident within 48 hours and must file the necessary medical certificates concerning the condition of the victim within four days, and a workman or his representatives may, at any time, within a year, make claim on account of an accident which has proven fatal or has resulted in permanent incapacity; the highest wage upon which indemnities may be figured is 2,400 francs (about \$460) a year; the new law applies also to all cases covered by the law of June 30, 1899.

March 23. Decree modifying article 16 of the decree of September 1, 1899, with relation to the reorganization of the Superior Labor Council so as to provide for a meeting of the Council on the first Monday of November, in each year.

March 28. Decree providing for regulation of hours of actual labor per day for adults and the amount of overtime allowed under special conditions.

April 10. Law completing article 2 of the law of December 27, 1890 (contract for services), provides for official confirmation, within one year of their adoption, of the statutes and regulations of retirement pension and aid funds maintained by railroad companies.

May 27. Order of the Minister of Commerce, Industry, Posts, and Telegraph making 75 kilograms the maximum weight to be carried by boys from 16 to 18 years of age acting as tricycle porters.

July 4. Decree adding certain industries to the number benefiting by the provisions of the law of November 2, 1892, in regard to the weekly day of rest and hours of labor.

August 6. Decree modifying article 4 of the decree of March 10, 1894, relative to health and safety of workmen.

November 21. Decree forbidding the operation called "pompage" in the manufacture of pewter ware. "Pompage" consists in inhaling or sucking with the lips inside hollow articles to test their tightness. Employers are ordered to provide necessary appliances for testing articles made. — *Annuaire de la Legislation du Travail, 1902. Brussels, 1903.*

RECENT LEGAL LABOR DECISIONS.

Usury—Loans upon Notes. The New York Court of Appeals has rendered a decision, in the case of *The People ex rel. Beebe vs. Warden of City Prison*, that the taking of more than 6 per cent interest for loans without security upon notes of salaried persons is usury and a misdemeanor under the law. The decision is in affirmance of judgments in the courts below.

Garnishment—Payments—Employé. Under the provisions of the Georgia act of November 11, 1901, the lien of a garnishment process does not attach to payments made by an employer to his employé before the service of the summons of garnishment for services to be performed after the payment is made, according to the decision of the Supreme Court of Georgia in the recent case of *Odum et al. vs. Macon & Birmingham Railway Company*.

Employer's Liability—Lack of Sleep. The Supreme Court of Indiana held, in the recent case of *the Republic Iron & Steel Company vs. Ohler*, that the fact that an employer had required a workman to labor continuously for forty-eight hours without sleep in spite of his protest was a proper matter for consideration in deciding whether the workman and the employer had equal knowledge and realization of the danger incident to work that he then undertook by the master's direction, and whether he assumed the danger incident thereto.

Construction—Delay—Strikes—Liability. The Supreme Court of Washington held, in the case of *Lund vs. St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railroad Company*, that delay in the construction of a bridge, because of inability to procure the necessary steel work on account of strikes and labor troubles, did not render one who had undertaken to construct the bridge liable for injuries caused by the continued obstruction of the street, where there was nothing to show that the material could have been procured from any other source any quicker.

Labor Union—Violation of Injunction. In the case of *Franklin Union (four press feeders) vs. Chicago Typotheta*, Judge Holdom of the Superior Court created a precedent in the history of trade unionism in this country in imposing a fine of \$1,000 upon the Franklin Union as a corporation for illegal acts of four members in violating an injunction restraining the Union as an organization from interfering with business of firms in question. Appeal taken.

Railroads—Personal Injuries—Contributory Negligence. The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held in the recent case of *Morris vs. Boston & Maine Railroad* that the plaintiff (a section hand, shoveling snow for the road, was run into by a wild engine pushing a snow plow) was not in the exercise of due care. By the nature of his employment, a section hand on a steam railroad must look out for passing trains, and such is the settled law of the Commonwealth.

Employment—Agreement—Price. The Supreme Court of Nebraska held, in the recent case of *Leidigh vs. Keever*, that if one person employs another at an agreed price for a certain time, and the employment is continued after the expiration of the time agreed upon without any new agreement as to price, the presumption is that the parties understood that the original rate of compensation was also to be continued, and that it could make no difference that there might be some change in the services rendered and performed, as that there should be an increase or diminution of the labor, so long as it was clearly within the scope of the original employment. The court said, however, that this presumption did not arise where there was no agreement fixing the amount of wages.

Employer's Liability—Foreman. In the case of *Boyerson vs. Cook-Stone Company*, recently decided by the Supreme Court of Minnesota, it appeared that the owner of a stone quarry employed twenty men to work upon different levels therein and in proximity to each other, although several of them were not able to observe the manner in which their fellow employees were performing their duties. A foreman was intrusted with the entire charge and supervision of the work. In the performance of the latter's duty he placed one quarryman in a position, and then located another at a place which made the work of the other man more hazardous, without giving the latter warning. The court held that under the facts the foreman represented the employer, and that for an injury which occurred through his act in locating the two employees, and his failure to give proper warning, he was a vice-principal, and that the employer was liable for his negligence in that respect.

Negligence—Management of Premises—Licensee. In the case of *Gile vs. J. W. Bishop Co.*, recently decided in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, it appeared that the construction company was making alterations at the City Manufacturing Co., and that the plaintiff, master mechanic of the City Manufacturing Co., was injured by the fall of timbers, act of defendant's servants. The court held that where a construction company is engaged in altering a building of a manufacturing company, which at the same time continues its business, so that the construction company is not in the exclusive occupation of the grounds, but the employees of the manufacturing company are expected to use them so far as necessary, such an employee is not a mere licensee, as against the construction company, and the latter is bound to use reasonable care to prevent his injury.

Master and Servant—Safe Place to Work. In the case of *Gile vs. the City of Worcester*, recently decided by the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, it appeared that the plaintiff was injured while at work by the breaking of a temporary staging on which he was standing. The Court held that where workmen on a temporary staging called for planks, and workmen on the ground selected them

from the pile provided for general use, the whole duty of the master consisted in furnishing enough sound planks and employing competent workmen, and he was not responsible for injuries resulting from the choice by a workman on the ground of an unsound plank. Testimony that defendant's foreman was not under duty to inspect planks used on a temporary staging, but merely to see that there were sufficient planks on hand, and that proper planks were used in general, and that he was taking entire charge of the job, did not warrant a finding that it was such foreman's duty to see that the staging was safe.

Distribution of Boycott Circulars Prohibited. Judge Cochran, in the United States Court at Covington, Ky., recently handed down a decision in the suit of Mayer, Scheuer, Offner & Co., of Cincinnati, wholesale clothiers, against Charles Applegate and other members of the Clothing Cutters and Trimmers' Union No. 100, and the Garment Workers of America and of the American Federation of Labor. The plaintiffs in their petition alleged that the defendants were distributing circulars and other literature setting forth that the firm was unfair to union labor. A temporary injunction was granted by Judge Cochran some months ago restraining the defendants from further interfering with their business. The order made recently makes this injunction permanent, and the defendants, each of them, or any person acting under their advice or control, are forever enjoined from in any manner doing such acts as are complained of in the plaintiffs' petition, or from in any way injuring the trade, custom and business of the complainant firm.

A Domestic Servant is a Wage Earner. In the case of Lena Greenberg vs. Joseph Lacob, the plaintiff on April 3, 1903, obtained a judgment for \$20 damages, being wages due for services rendered as a domestic servant. The defendant appealed on various technical grounds and also made the contention that, as the com-

plainant was a female domestic, she was not subject to the body execution which section 274 of the Municipal Court Law (chapter 580 of the Laws of 1902) provides in favor of wage earners unable to collect their wages. On November 18, Justice Blanchard, at the Appellate Term, New York County, rendered a decision on the appeal, in which he affirmed the judgment against the defendant and held that domestic servants are wage earners within the meaning of the law. He said, in part: "The appellant claims that the action being by a female domestic, no body execution can be executed against the defendant. Section 274 of the Municipal Court Act provides that 'in an action brought in the municipal court by a journeyman, laborer or other employee whose employment answers to the general description of wage earner for services rendered or wages earned in such capacity if the plaintiff recovers a judgment for a sum not exceeding \$50 . . . the clerk must upon the application of the plaintiff issue an execution against the person of the defendant. . . .' It is the policy of the law to give the wage earner ample means to enforce the payment of his wages. The section referred to provides that no property of the defendant is exempt from levy and sale, and it is the duty of the court to construe the statute so as to meet the mischief which the law was intended to remedy. Upon a fair construction of the statute we fail to see why a domestic servant is not within its protection. She is certainly an employee and works for wages, and there does not appear to be any good reason for depriving her of the protection afforded to other wage earners. The word 'wages' is discussed in the Matter of Stryker, 158 N. Y. 536, and it is therein stated that it applies to payment of laborers, mechanics and domestic servants. In Garden v. Jennings, 9 Queen Bench Div. 45, the court said, 'the term wages is not applied to the remuneration of a high or important officer of the state' but to that of domestic servants, laborers, and persons of similar description."

STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

Excerpts on Labor.

Labor Laws.

Labor is the great producer of wealth. Upon its prosperity depends the prosperity of the State. Its interests should be safeguarded on every hand. They cannot be overlooked; they cannot be dealt with carelessly, but must be considered with earnest thoughtfulness. Your predecessors recognized this fact, when they provided for the appointment of a committee by the Governor to consider and report on the laws concerning the legal relations between employers and employees. That committee is soon to report its findings to you. I need not bespeak for them your earnest and most considerate attention.

Arbitration Board.

Since 1886, which was a year of strikes, there has operated in this Commonwealth a system of settling labor difficulties. It has done much towards redressing actual grievances, and much to clarify thought on the labor question. It has met with approval in many other States. Through it, the employer and the wage-earner have come together and defined the matter of

their dispute, with a mutual settlement often resulting therefrom. Not only has there been conciliation of past differences, but there has been negotiation of agreements which has settled possible future difficulties. In the last year there were before the Board 79 cases for arbitration and 102 cases of conciliation. There were 188 complaints made. Advice was given in 118 cases; there were 640 interviews, 96 conferences, and 352 unreported settlements in which the influence of the Board was traceable. Hardly a day elapses that a difficulty of some kind is not brought to the Board's attention, and advice given which materially improves the relations of the employer and the employee. Most of these efforts are not reported, but they are none the less valuable.

Manufactures and Trade.

In speaking of the importance of the labor interests, I desire to emphasize equally the importance of jealously guarding and encouraging manufacturing and commercial enterprise. In view of the growing rivalry, not only of nations, but also of parts of this nation, for industrial supremacy; in view of the advantages of-

ferred in certain other States to enterprise and to capital by reason of the proximity of raw materials, and by reason also of less restrictive and less enlightened labor laws,—it behooves us to at all times keep in mind the fact that any legislation which tends to place unreasonable restrictions upon the employer tends with equal certainty to work hardship to the employee.

Not only by guarding against measures which tend to cripple industry, but also by the employment of our best wisdom to devise means and methods for its encouragement, shall we best serve the State. In this connection I direct your attention also to the fact that, if we permit city and town debts, county and State obligations to so multiply as to make the local tax rates burdensome in comparison with those which prevail in other places, we shall discourage new business ventures, and slowly drive away existing industries.

The policy of the State in regard to municipal indebtedness is therefore of high importance.

Textile Schools.

The textile school at Fall River is not yet open. Those at Lowell and New Bedford are meeting the demands made upon them, and proving as practically useful as their advocates expected. They furnish the best opportunities for the development of that expert knowledge that may tend to assist Massachusetts to maintain her industrial supremacy. While their final relation to the city, to the State and to private enterprise is not fully determined, their work is such as to entitle them to a continuance of the State's support.

The evening department of the New Bedford school is especially worthy of notice, affording, as it does, the opportunity for the mill workers of New Bedford to obtain a technical textile education concurrent with the pursuit of their ordinary occupations. The equipment of the institution has been considerably increased during the past year, and its physical condition is excellent. About 300 pupils have attended this school during each year of the past five. The school has been the recipient of valuable contributions of machinery and other equipment.

The Lowell school, with its largely increased accommodations and larger membership than ever before, is in a most satisfactory condition. Additional branches of study are being added by the trustees, who have recognized that the textile industry of Massachusetts must adjust itself to constantly changing conditions, and that it is at present passing from the manufacture of the simplest and coarsest fabrics to that of the higher grades, requiring just that skill, taste and knowledge which these schools are intended to develop.—*From Address of His Excellency, John L. Bates, to the Two Branches of the Legislature of Massachusetts, Jan. 7, 1904.*

Fall River Dividends.

The average dividend for 1903 paid by the Fall River cotton mills amounted to 5.48 per cent, as compared with 6.47 per cent in 1902.

Business Failures in Massachusetts.

The number of business embarrassments in the Commonwealth in 1903 was smaller by 45 than in 1902. The liabilities in 1903 were much larger than in the previous year, exceeding those of 1902 by \$4,516,268. Comparisons for the two years are considered in the following tabular statement:

BUSINESS EMBARRASMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS.	1902	1903
Number of embarrassments,	960	915
Assets,	\$3,678,421	\$6,424,267
Liabilities,	\$10,893,976	\$15,410,244

BUSINESS EMBARRASMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS.	INCREASE (+), OR DECREASE (—), IN 1903 OVER 1902	
	Number	Percent- ages
Number of embarrassments,	—45	—4.69
Assets,	+\$2,745,846	+71.65
Liabilities,	+\$4,516,268	+41.46

— *Bradstreet's, Jan. 9, 1904.*

Employees in Electric Light and Power Stations in Massachusetts.

The total central electric light and power stations in operation in Massachusetts in 1902 numbered 114, of which number 97 were under private ownership and 17 under municipal ownership.

The following table shows the total average employees in the 97 private electric light and power stations in the Commonwealth, together with the total yearly wages and average yearly earnings, classified by branch of employment:

CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYEES.	Total Average Persons	Total Yearly Earnings	Average Yearly Earnings
Salaries persons, . .	420	\$448,221	\$1,067.19
General officers, . .	112	142,815	1,275.13
Managers, superintendents, etc, . .	119	179,063	1,504.65
Clerks,	189	126,353	668.53
Wage earners,	1,474	1,053,344	714.62
Foremen,	36	39,814	1,105.94
Inspectors,	71	51,183	720.89
Engineers,	199	181,735	913.24
Firemen,	159	110,358	694.08
Dynamo and switch-board men,	130	99,861	768.16
Linemen,	247	173,729	703.38
Mechanics,	40	39,142	978.55
Lamp trimmers, . .	145	93,407	644.19
All other employes, .	447	264,115	590.86

— *Census Bulletin No. 5, Washington, D. C.*

Is This Denver Union Liable for Slander?

A suit has been filed in the Denver District Court having for its purpose the establishment of the principle that labor unions are partnerships and that slander committed by one member makes the organization itself liable for damages. One Niel Henderson is the plaintiff in the case. The Firemen and Engineers' Helpers' Union, No. 158, of Denver, is the defendant. Henderson charges that a committee from the union circulated the report that he was taking coal from a company, selling it to other parties and pocketing the proceeds, thereby intimating that he had been guilty of larceny. For this alleged slander he wants \$5,000 damages.—*American Industries, Dec. 15, 1903.*

Immigration into the United States, 1903.

The immigrants arriving in the United States for the fiscal year 1903 numbered 857,046 (613,146 males and 243,900 females). Of the whole number of immigrants,

102,431 were under 14 years of age; 714,053 were from 14 to 45 years; and 40,562 were 45 years and over. — *Journal of Commerce and Finance, November, 1903.*

Export Prices of the United States.

The average export prices of principal domestic articles of the United States for the month of November, 1903, are brought into comparison with those for November, 1902, in the following table. The value of the goods represents their market value at the time of exportation.

EXPORTED ARTICLES.	Unit	NOVEMBER.	
		1902	1903
Breadstuffs:			
Corn,	Bushel	\$0.62	\$0.519
Wheat,	Bushel	0.753	0.81
Wheat flour,	Barrel	3.69	3.95
Provisions:			
Beef:			
Fresh,	Pound	0.101	0.09
Salted or pickled, . .	Pound	0.077	0.056
Tallow,	Pound	0.063	0.048
Bacon,	Pound	0.112	0.098
Hams,	Pound	0.124	0.116
Pork, pickled,	Pound	0.104	0.086
Lard,	Pound	0.105	0.083
Oleomargarine (the oil),	Pound	0.10	0.078
Butter,	Pound	0.217	0.166
Cheese,	Pound	0.131	0.116
Starch,	Pound	0.03	0.022
Sugar, refined,	Pound	0.035	0.033
Tobacco, leaf,	Pound	0.097	0.104
Coal:			
Anthracite,	Ton	5.38	4.97
Bituminous,	Ton	2.70	2.64
Copper: Ingots, bars, and old	Pound	0.117	0.133
Cotton, manufactured, .	Pound	0.083	0.108
Cloths:			
Colored,	Yard	0.048	0.059
Uncolored,	Yard	0.056	0.062
Hay,	Ton	14.70	17.28
Hops,	Pound	0.253	0.229
Iron and steel:			
Pig iron,	Ton	19.07	18.36
Nails and spikes—cut, .	Pound	0.021	0.02
Leather, sole	Pound	0.187	0.19
Seeds:			
Clover,	Pound	0.099	0.095
Cotton,	Pound	0.013	0.01
Wood: Boards, deals, and planks,	M feet	20.37	20.54

The Adoption of Children by Labor Unions.

A peculiar feature of trade unionism which has come to light in connection with the recent agitation in North Carolina for a law forbidding the employment of child labor is the "adoption" by several unions of Charlotte of children who had previously been compelled to work in the cotton mills of that city.

The first to take action in the matter was the Typographical Union, which in July, 1902, authorized its secretary to find the most deserving child and to place her name on the payroll of the union. After some investigation he selected a girl nine years of age who was then working "from daylight till dark" at \$2.40 a fortnight. This child was the bread-winner of a family consisting of herself, an invalid mother and a brother too young to work. For some time the union continued to pay her an allowance equal to her former wages, with the understanding that she was to go to school instead of to the mill. Her spare time was to be devoted to recreation. Besides the allowance paid by the union, the members supplied her with books and clothing purchased by voluntary contributions. The printers were so well pleased with the results of their experiment that her allowance was increased

from time to time until, according to latest accounts, she was receiving \$4 a fortnight.

Several other unions soon followed the example of the printers, but none seem to have chosen more wisely the object of their altruism. In no case does the girl thus adopted appear to be the daughter of a deceased member of the union or to have a special claim of any sort upon it. In one instance the child has two sisters who work in the mills, but are not members of any union.

The method of caring for the children is the same with all the unions. They continue to live at home, and receive an allowance which is at least equal to their former wages. In most cases the children are expected to go to school, and in any event they are not allowed to continue their work in the mills. — *Vanderveer Custis in Quarterly Journal of Economics, August, 1903.*

Population, Births, and Deaths in Four Cities.

In 1902, in Amsterdam, with a population of 534,768, there were 15,253 births, or 2.85 per cent, and 8,230 deaths, or 1.54 per cent, the births exceeding the deaths by 1.31 per cent of the total population. In the same year, the births exceeded the deaths, in London, by 50,270, or 1.08 per cent, in a population of 4,579,110; in New York by 17,531, or 0.49 per cent, in a population of 3,632,501; and, in Paris, by 6,581, or 0.25 per cent, in a population of 2,660,559. — *Statistik der Bevolkung, 1902, Amsterdam, 1903.*

Strikes in France.

During the 12 months from November 1, 1902, to October 31, 1903, there were 475 strikes reported in France, 63,126 strikers being involved in those for which the number was given. Of the total, 315 resulted from unsatisfactory wage, 32 from demands for changes in hours of labor, and 128 from other causes; in 85 cases the strikers succeeded, in 163 they failed, and 174 strikes were compromised. — *Bulletins de l'Office du Travail, Paris.*

Wages in Italy.

Consul Pietro Cuneo, of Turin, Italy, gives the following general daily wages as those prevailing in the City of Turin in 1903:

Laborers:

Boys,	\$0.20 to \$0.30
Men,	0.40 to 0.50
Bricklayers,	0.80 to 1.00
Stonecutters and carpenters, .	0.60 to 0.70
Painters and frescoers, . . .	0.40 to 0.50
Experts,	0.60 to 0.75
Laborers in the employ of the city,	0.40 to 0.60

Leather School in London.

The Shoe and Leather Record, of London, says, in a recent issue, that a technical school for leather workers has been opened in London under the direction of an efficient corps of instructors. It is to give practical technical training in tanning, currying, leather dressing, dyeing, staining, and finishing. The London city leather workers' guilds have also instituted an examination in leather dyeing, staining, and finishing divided into an elementary and an honor course, as is at present done in the dressing of skins and leather manufacture. The certificates issued in both cases are similar.

Boot and Shoe Trade in Great Britain.

Returns from boot and shoe centres in Great Britain show slightly improved conditions in the industry.

The number of workpeople employed by boot and shoe firms in Great Britain at the end of November, 1903, was 72,812 as compared with 72,414 employees in November, 1902, an increase in 1903 of five-tenths of one per cent. In England and Wales, 596 firms employed 68,385 persons at the end of November, 1903; 22 firms in Scotland making returns employed 4,144 persons; one firm in Ireland employed 283 workpeople. — *Labor Gazette, London, December, 1903.*

The Shoe Industry in Germany.

Das Handels Museum, an Austrian trade paper, in its issue of October 15, 1903, says:

Attempts are now being made to form a trust of the German leather manufacturers. As a preliminary step a central office will be located in Berlin, and the members of the trust will be assessed about 75 cents per employee for its maintenance. Statistics show that German exports of shoes have fallen off and that imports of American shoes are rapidly increasing. Americans are opening stores in all the German cities. The poor condition of business this summer caused many factories to shorten their working time.

Community Stores in Germany.

It is reported that a large saving has been effected to the poorer classes in Plauen by the prevalent system of community stores (*Konsum-Vereine*), which have, however, played havoc with the interests of shopkeepers. These stores, as the name indicates, are managed in the interest of the consumers, and at stated periods every participant secures a pro rata dividend out of any savings realized. In purchasing supplies for these stores even the wholesalers are frequently avoided and the goods secured directly from the producer. There are quite a number of these stores in and about Plauen, and they continue as popular with the patrons as they are unpopular among the regular storekeepers. — *United States Consul Hugo Muench, of Plauen, Germany, Nov. 24, 1903.*

Condition of the German Textile Industries.

The loss by a great part of the German textile industries of the American markets caused, some years ago, the attempt on the part of the German manufacturers to combine for a reduction in the output and an agreement as to prices. For various reasons this has never been successful. The first syndicates were organized in certain quarters where this industry predominates about four years ago, but the members, it is said, did not live up to the agreements. A new attempt was made in 1901 among the South German producers, where the industrial situation was in a better condition, to diminish production 25 per cent, but the agreement carried with it the clause that the association bound themselves to bring into the combination all the manufacturers in Germany. This was not accomplished, however, and during 1902 attempts were again made, this time by the manufacturers along the Rhine, who proposed a diminution of the working hours of 15 per cent after the 15th day of September. The South German manufacturers declined to go into this association and the situation for 1902 became worse than before. Of 45 manufactories 22 sustained losses in 1900, 26 in 1901, and 33 in 1903. — *Edward H. Ozmun, Consul, Stuttgart, Germany, Oct. 23, 1903.*

The Cotton Crisis in Europe.

The fluctuation of the American cotton market during the past 12 months has greatly disturbed the European spinners and weavers of cotton. Many of the mills continued to work at a loss, some entirely

failed, while others sought to evolve novelties for which fancy prices might be obtained. Thus, the "mercerization" of the Egyptian cotton — producing a most plausible and deceptive imitation of silk — and the manufacture of cotton blankets and other specialties were strongly pushed. The desire to multiply the present sources of supply has induced a strong feeling among German manufacturers in favor of cotton culture on a large scale in German and British African colonies as well as in other regions wherein cotton has not hitherto been considered indigenous. — *Hugo Muench, Consul, Plauen, Germany, Oct. 12, 1903.*

Africa's Possibilities in Cotton.

Many tons of cotton seed have been distributed and now an extensive area is under cultivation. There are many thousands of acres in the vicinity of the newly constructed railway which are available for cotton growing, and this land will at no distant date be fields of growing cotton.

During the American civil war and also at the time of the notable cotton famine, Lagos produced large quantities of cotton, and there are many parts of the colony where the residue of this cotton is growing wild and even so is described as of fine quality.

In years to come Africa will be able to grow all the cotton which the English manufacturers require and still have a surplus for exportation. — *London Daily Express, Oct. 1, 1903, in Consular Report No. 1800.*

Sugar Trust in Spain.

It is reported that of the 80 or more beet and cane sugar factories of Spain, all except two or three have just been merged in a sugar trust. The former Finance Minister, Lopez Puigcerver, has been elected chairman of the board of directors. The beet-sugar industry of Spain, although comparatively young, is already far more important than the cane-sugar industry. The two together produce almost 100,000 metric tons annually, some of which is exported. — *Brainard H. Warner, Jr., Consul, Leipzig, Germany, Oct. 3, 1903.*

Iron Works of Russia.

The beginning of the Russian iron industry goes far into the past. The rich deposits of the Urals have been turned into account for a hundred years, but even yet are far from being exhausted. The first modern iron works is that of Nikolai Putilov, founded in 1801, and at present employing 12,440 men. It is not only one of the greatest in Russia, but also in Europe, ranking with Creusot in France, Armstrong in England, and Cockerill in Belgium, being surpassed only by Krupp. The Ishorsch Admiralty Works was founded in 1714, and employs 4,529 men. The leading iron works in Russia number 21, with an aggregate of 104,215 men employed. — *Stahl und Eisen, Düsseldorf, Nov. 1, 1903.*

Shoe Polish in Russia.

Shoe blacking and polish is in good demand in Russian markets, where these articles have as yet little competition. As the United States is admittedly the greatest producer of these articles, American manufacturers and exporters should pay more attention to the Russian market. — *Simon W. Hanauer, Deputy Consul-General, Frankfurt, Germany, Aug. 31, 1903.*

Workingmen's Insurance in Foreign Countries.

The work by Dr. Zacher, President of the Senate in the Government Insurance Office, entitled, "Work-

ingmen's Insurance in Foreign Countries," which is regarded as both practical and scientific, gives us in the sixteen numbers published up to date a résumé of workingmen's insurance in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, France, Great Britain, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Finland, Switzerland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxemburg, Spain, and in the last number (XVI.) a review of the different systems of workingmen's insurance in Europe.

There are now appearing supplements to this collective work in order to treat the latest laws and statistics of workingmen's insurance in the respective countries and in order to keep the whole work "au courant."

In the number just published (Ia) on Denmark, as in the recently published supplement (IVa) on France, the author has put into juxtaposition the internal and foreign laws on this subject, and has given further proofs of the extraordinary difference which exists between the two systems of voluntary and compulsory insurance.

Based on these two-sided official statistics, striking proofs are submitted for all three branches of insurance (sickness, accident and invalid insurance) how little the voluntary system is just to the well recognized interests of the workingmen.

Besides, actual questions in the sphere of workingmen's insurance are touched upon in general, as for instance where the interests of the physicians' guild come into conflict with the organizations distributing the sick benefit funds, which conflict has not only come up in Germany, but also in Denmark, France, etc. The author has especially tried to solve the problem of insurance for the employed in quite a peculiar manner. He proposes that the care of the unemployed—in consequence of business stagnation—be assigned to the contractors' unions trade and business organizations in the form of a junction of the Times and Crises Insurance, but to leave all the other cases of want of employment to the workingmen's organization, as is now the case.

In view of the peculiar conditions in Denmark and a proposed law which is now being discussed in the Danish Reichstag, it is recommended to try and leave the care of the unemployed to the workingmen's associations, and for this purpose to allow them additional sums out of the treasury of the State, as has been done with the subventioned workingmen's sick benefit associations. According to the opinion of the author the first proposition could be immediately realized in Germany.—*Social Service, January, 1904.*

Population of China.

United States Commercial Agent R. T. Greener, of Vladivostock, Siberia, under date of December 18, 1903, reports that a Russian paper, quoting from a Chinese paper, says:

According to the last census taken in China by imperial order, in view of reassessing taxes, the total number of inhabitants amounted to 426,447,325 souls. The 18 Chinese Provinces proper had 407,737,305; Manchuria, 8,500,000; Mongolia, 3,354,000; Tibet, 6,430,000; and Chinese Turkestan, 426,000 inhabitants.

To Make Alcohol Undrinkable.

The Imperial Russian Minister of Finance has just offered a prize of \$25,750 to the person or persons who will invent some way of making alcohol undrinkable. Pamphlets giving the exact requirements governing the competition have been printed in the French language and sent to the Russian consulates in foreign countries. Russian consulates in the United States are

located in the following cities: Mobile, San Francisco, Pensacola, Savannah, Chicago, Baltimore, Boston, New York City, Portland (Oregon), Philadelphia, and Galveston.—*Brainard H. Warner, jr., Consul, Leipzig, Germany, Jan. 13, 1904.*

Immigration into Canada.

Canada has all the elements required, save convenient coal measures, for the building up of a great and prosperous country. She has abundant water power and transportation. She has in the East splendid railroad facilities, and soon will have throughout the West and Northwest railroads sufficient for the needs of the country. What she lacks is population, and this she is endeavoring in a strenuous way to secure, and with the opening up of the Northwest Territories and new Ontario it would seem that a great tide of immigration must be attracted. Even now the immigration into the Dominion is greater than at any time since the first settlement of the country.

The following figures indicate the number and nationality of declared settlers for the six months ended June 30, 1900, and the fiscal years 1901 and 1902.

NATIONALITY.	Six months ended June 30, 1900	1901	1902
From the United States, .	8,543	17,987	26,388
English and Welsh, .	4,129	9,401	13,095
Irish,	343	933	1,311
Galicians,	4,992	4,702	6,550
Scotch,	669	1,476	2,853
Germans,	476	984	1,048
Scandinavians,	714	1,750	2,451
French and Belgians, .	253	492	654
Hungarians,	370	546	1,048
Austrians,	155	228	320
Russians and Finlanders,	1,310	1,726	3,759
Other nationalities, . .	1,941	8,924	7,902
TOTALS,	23,895	49,149	67,379

The trade returns for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1903, give the total value of settlers' effects for the year as \$6,442,724, \$1,117,843 coming from Great Britain and \$5,287,883 from the United States. In 1901 settlers' effects were entered to the value of \$3,740,630; in 1902, \$4,580,381.—*Henry S. Culver, Consul, London, Canada, Oct. 12, 1903.*

Employers' Welfare Institutions in New York State.

Though the model factory, costly in construction and equipment, is to a certain degree the outcome of the rapid development of our modern industrial system, with the resultant introduction of the latest inventions in labor-saving devices to enhance the quality and decrease the cost of production, nevertheless, the statutes enacted for the inspection of manufactories have wrought vast improvements in respect to cleanliness, sanitation, ventilation, lighting and heating of workshops; further preserving the health of operatives by requiring suitable toilet conveniences, seats for females, the lime-washing or painting of walls and ceilings; protecting life and limb through the guarding of belting, dangerous machinery, elevator shafts and well-holes, boiler inspection, and the erection of fire-escapes on buildings and substantial handrails on stairways. Yet there are many employers who, besides conforming to all these enactments, have exceeded the requirements of the factory laws by introducing in their establishments a series of commendable features that have not alone added to the comfort of their em-

ployees, but have tended to elevate their standard of life by promoting their physical, social, moral and intellectual well-being. These welfare institutions have naturally created a better understanding between employer and employed, all other labor conditions being equal, engendering a spirit of amity, resulting in improved workmanship, and yielding larger returns on the commercial side of the project.

To gain the necessary knowledge as to the extent and effect of this movement to mellorate industrial conditions in other directions than the granting of higher wages or shorter working hours, and compliance with the statutory provisions already referred to, the Department of Labor, in 1903, undertook a special inquiry into the subject, confining its efforts to firms and companies having more than 30 workers. The investigation embraced 108 establishments, employing 59,291 persons, that had in successful operation one or more of the activities that came within the scope of the research. An epitome of these measures follows:

Ministering to the health and comfort of employees by providing wash-rooms, shower baths, working costumes, laundry facilities, ventilated lockers, bicycle sheds, dressing, dining and lunch rooms, free lunches, or food at nominal prices, sanitary drinking fountains, medicated drinking water, roof gardens, and flower gardens on premises.

Constructing costly and beautiful buildings, with assembly halls and club rooms, in which are introduced diversions of various kinds to foster personal friendliness; establishing in factories club rooms for social gatherings or meetings, rooms for games, and encouragement of summer outings by contributing generously to funds for that purpose.

Stimulating a desire for physical culture by laying out athletic fields for base ball, lawn tennis, and other outdoor sports; setting apart rooms for dancing, drills, calisthenics, or gymnastics.

Effecting intellectual and moral improvement by providing kindergartens for children of workmen, free lectures, evening classes, manual training classes, technical instruction, free circulating libraries, reading rooms, concerts, theatrical entertainments, music lessons, and pianos in work rooms for use of employees.

Developing the domestic and family life by building improved dwellings, and also giving instruction in sewing, cooking and housekeeping to the young daughters of employees.

Advancing the spiritual side of life by holding devotional services once a week to accommodate such employees as may wish to attend.

Creating an interest in the business affairs of concerns by sharing profits with employees, assisting them to become stockholders, paying premiums or bonuses, or awarding prizes for valuable suggestions relating to management, manufacturing, etc.

Encouraging habits of thrift by supplying savings facilities and allowing liberal rates of interest on deposits.

Insurance or beneficiary funds, maintained jointly by employers and employees; for the purpose of rendering financial aid in case of sickness, accident or death.

Caring for sick or injured workmen by the payment of wages during disablement, defraying expenses for medical attendance or hospital service, maintaining first-aid rooms supplied with necessary surgical appliances and medicines, for immediate use in accident cases, and granting old age or retiring pensions to employees after many years of service.

Protecting work-people against fire loss by issuing free insurance policies on their tools.

In this summarized statement it is possible to describe only the welfare work in a few leading manufacturing establishments, including one factory in New York City, one in northeastern New York, one in central New York and two in the western part of the State; but these measures typify the character of the effort that is in operation in other factories visited by the Department's attachés, and a presentation of the detailed information obtained in all of them would be simply a repetition of the facts that appear below. Other prominent concerns that are conducting welfare work number 21. — *Twenty-first Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, New York.*

Wages and Cost of Living in Germany.

Wages.

The general business depression has affected the rate of wages paid, and yet there have been fewer reductions than might have been expected. This has doubtless been due in part to the influence of labor organizations and in part to the recognition by manufacturers that wages have been for some time as low as the cost of living will permit. The loss from an economic standpoint of an improperly housed and fed working class is frequently referred to by manufacturers themselves, and has, doubtless, had its effect in sustaining wages during the depression.

During a strike in the month of August among the employees of a large firm of Mannheim engaged in the manufacture of agricultural implements and traction engines, a detailed statement was published by the firm showing the rate of wages paid different classes of their workmen during the first six months of the current year. On the part of the firm it was claimed that the rate was as high as, or a little higher than, that generally paid in this locality for the same class of labor.

A summary of the wages paid the somewhat more than 100 blacksmiths employed in one of the two plants operated by the firm shows that 31.79 per cent of the 100 received, a day of 9½ hours, 71.4 to 95.2 cents; 45.05 per cent, 95 cents to \$1.31; and 23.16 per cent, more than \$1.19.

These figures do not include boys, apprentices, or foremen. Of the 121 blacksmiths employed at the plant at the second pay day in June, 45 men were reported as receiving from 71.4 to 95.2 cents, 38 men from 95.2 cents to \$1.19, 26 men from \$1.19 to \$1.43, and 12 men from \$1.43 to \$1.64 a day.

The following table shows the published rate of wages paid workmen in the various departments of this manufacturing concern from January 1 to June 30, 1903, and the average number of employees. In this table are reckoned machinists, blacksmiths, boiler-makers, and other mechanics, as well as helpers and day laborers. Boys, apprentices, and foremen are not included. The wages stated are for a day of 9½ hours.

DAILY WAGES.	Average Number of Workmen
71.4 to 95 cents,	480
95 cents to \$1.19,	775
\$1.19 to \$1.43,	577
\$1.43 to \$1.67,	117
\$1.67 to \$1.90,	6
Above \$1.90,	1
TOTAL,	1,956

A summary of the foregoing table shows that 24.54 per cent of the employees received from 71.4 to 95 cents,

69.12 per cent 95 cents to \$1.43, and 6.34 per cent above \$1.43 a day.

The wages paid by the wood-pulp and paper mill of this city, one of the largest and best managed concerns of its kind in Germany, employing more than 1,700 workmen, the larger part of whom would be classed as unskilled, were as follows: In 1889, 57 cents a day; in 1902, 75 cents a day. The skilled or partly skilled workmen received in 1889 an average of 78½ cents a day and in 1902 \$1.02 a day.

Cost of Living.

Closely related to the question of wages is that of the cost of living. This has shown a tendency to increase and is a matter of grave concern to the manufacturer in this locality, seeing as he does that the burden indirectly falls upon himself. Competition is forcing down the selling price of his wares while the cost of living tends to keep up the rate of wages.

The matter is recognized as one of wide economic importance in this manufacturing centre. It is pointed out that the increase in the price of meats, for example, is reducing its consumption among the working classes and is bringing the nation face to face with the question of the proper nourishment of these classes. It is noted that, in 1901, 22,582 tons of hog and other casings were imported into the Empire for use in the manufacture of sausages, indicating to what extent the working classes especially are dependent upon the cheaper meat products. Special stress is placed on the injury to the working classes resulting from the forced reduction in the use of pork.

An analysis of consumption statistics shows a falling off in the per capita consumption of good meats in Mannheim and an increase of the relative amount of the cheaper-priced meats used. Thus, for example, the number of horses slaughtered for food in the city was 404 in 1900, while in 1902 the number was 554. — *H. W. Harris, Consul, Mannheim, Germany, Nov. 25, 1903.*

The Remedy for Labor Troubles.

At the recent meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at St. Louis, Mr. H. T. Newcomb made the following suggestive observations on some phases of the labor problem:

Obviously the demand is for a temporary remedy for a difficulty which ought ultimately to disappear. With this fact kept carefully in view, it is safe to consider the remedy of arbitration. This has actually but one form. To be arbitration at all it must be wholly voluntary. The term compulsory arbitration is self-contradictory, and however it may be disguised, it really means the creation of a new type of court endowed with authority to make contracts relating to labor services.

Arbitration — voluntary arbitration — is a term so grateful to the ear to which it comes as a substitute for the clash of bitter industrial struggles that it seems ungracious not to commend it without qualification. If men cannot agree, what can be better than to submit their differences to the settlement of a disinterested and impartial third party? If men cannot agree. This qualification begs the entire question. Reasonable men can agree, and unreasonable men must become reasonable or be replaced, in industrial affairs, by those who are. One way in which unreasonable men arrange for their own replacement is by getting themselves into situations out of which they cannot be extricated except through the assistance of others.

The adjustments of industry are too delicate to endure, without injury to all concerned, the frequent

interference of the disinterested. A strong personal interest is the element which is most effective in preventing irreparable mistakes. Arbitration may be the smaller of two evils, but no one should fail to recognize it as an evil. Aside from the fact that it leaves the determination of matters of primary industrial importance to persons who will neither gain nor lose by the success or failure of the industry, it is evil in its consequences, because, when there is reason to rely upon its being arranged for, that fact constitutes an incentive to making, and insisting upon, unreasonable demands.

The easy-going policy which consents to the submission of questions vitally concerning the welfare of an enterprise to persons who have no stake in its success naturally leads to the easy-going method on the part of arbitrators which is expressed by "splitting the difference" between the conflicting demands of both of the contending parties. This is the almost uniform result of arbitration.

If you will turn to the decision and award of the recent Anthracite Strike Commission you will find that that ablest and most impartial of arbitration boards was not able to avoid this nearly inevitable result. In its pages you will read the contradiction of every substantial averment of the striking mine workers. You will find that the wages of the employees of the anthracite operators did not, in April, 1902, compare unfavorably with those of bituminous miners or men in other employments of similar character. You will find that the conditions of life and the standard of living in the anthracite counties of Pennsylvania were not lower than in comparable regions. You will find that the basis of payment was not unfair to the workmen. You will find the United Mine Workers described as a body too strongly influenced by bituminous coal interests to be a safe factor in the anthracite industry. You will find that boys voted in its meetings and gave a reckless tone to its management. You will find that the period of the great strike was one of lawlessness and violence, which the leaders of the organization could not or, at any rate, did not effectively check.

So much the gentlemen of the commission gathered from unimpeached and unimpeachable testimony, and so much they clearly, concisely and fearlessly set down in the permanent record of their arduous and graciously accepted task. But after bravely announcing these facts in terms quite equivalent to declaring that the strike had no justification, the commission yielded, as any other arbitrators would have yielded, and as nearly all arbitrators will yield in future controversies, to the impulse, commendable in itself, to deal generously with those who have relatively little, and awarded a general advance in wages.

But if voluntary arbitration is no more than a temporary and rather dangerous makeshift, and compulsory arbitration is utterly to be condemned, what can be done? The answer has been given — men must learn to bargain together reasonably. The remedy ought to appeal to us more because it is a process and not a panacea for all the ills of industrial conflict. That men can learn to settle their disputes over wages without outside aid, and that unions can make and keep collective bargains, has been abundantly proven during the recent industrial experience of the United States. All that is required is that there shall be more of this reasonableness and much less of its opposite. That this will come with the growth and spread of intelligence there need be no doubt. — *The Engineering and Mining Journal. New York, March 3, 1904.*



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